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CXXVI. *Modern Geography: A Deſcription of the Empires, Kingdoms, States, and Colonies; with the Oceans, Seas, and Iſles; in all Parts of the World: including the moſt recent Diſcoveries, and political Alterations. Digeſted on a new Plan. By John Pinkerton. The Aſtronomical Introduction by the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S. With numerous Maps, under the Direction, and with the lateſt Improvements, of Arrowſmith, and engraved by Lowry. To the whole are added, a Catalogue of the beſt Maps, and Books of Travels and Voyages in all Languages; and an ample Index.* 2 vols. 4to. pp. about 1600; price 4*l.* 4*s.* Cadell and Davies, 1802.

THE ſcience of Geography has of late years been ſo much ſtudied, and is become ſo familiar to perſons in every claſs of ſociety, who have any pretenſions to a liberal education, that the demand for a work of ſtandard authority on the ſubject became almoſt univerſal. Gazetteers and Geographical Grammars, we have of all ſizes and deſcriptions; ſome indeed of a magnitude ſufficient to contain every thing of importance connected with the ſtudy: but having from time to time paſſed through the hands of various editors, whoſe views were totally different, whoſe purſuits led them into ſubjects very little connected with geography properly ſo called, they contain a maſs of miſcellaneous information, uſeful in many departments of life, but not ſubordinate to the main buſineſs of a particular ſcience. Topographical deſcription has given place to protracted and unintereſting diſcuſſions on local politics, to details of hiſtory, or commercial regulations: and the claims of newly diſcovered countries have been conſidered of minor importance in the ſeveral geographical works which preceded Mr. Pinkerton's Modern Geography.

At no period was an improved ſyſtem of modern Geography more wanted than at the preſent: during the laſt forty years, the diſcoveries on our globe have been numerous and bril-

liant; his preſent Majeſty has diſtinguiſhed himſelf as the patron of thoſe ſcientific men who have devoted their lives to geographical purſuits. The accounts of voyages and travels made by perſons of the higheſt talents and reputation, muſt neceſſarily be ſcattered through a number of volumes; it required, therefore, not only patience of inveſtigation, but a general knowledge of what had already been done, to be able to arrange all the material facts relating to the known world, in a clear and methodical order. With the talents of Mr. P. the public have been long acquainted, and from paſt experience they were willing to repoſe in him a degree of confidence which is highly requiſite to inſure ſucceſs to an undertaking of this magnitude.

A more favourable epoch, according to our author, could not have been deviſed for a new ſyſtem of geography, "than the beginning of the nineteenth century, after the lapſe of the eighteenth, which will be memorable in all ages from the gigantic progreſs of every ſcience, and in particular of geographical information; nor leſs from the ſurprizing changes which have taken place in moſt countries of Europe, and which of themſelves render a new deſcription indiſpenſable. Whole kingdoms have been annihilated; grand provinces transferred; and ſuch a general alteration has taken place in ſtates and boundaries, that a geographical work publiſhed five years ago, may be pronounced to be already antiquated." When this ſentence was written, there was every proſpect of a long continued peace: but with our preſent views, embarked again in an eventful war, it is impoſſible to aſſign bounds to the changes and revolutions that may take place in the courſe of a few years. Hence no geographical work can remain any length of time perfect. All that can be expected is, that no important eſtabliſhed fact ſhould be paſſed unnoticed; that the lines of demarkation between different countries ſhould be fairly drawn as they were agreed upon at the laſt convention of peace, and that the manners and cuſtoms of the ſeveral nations of the world ſhould be exhibited according to the beſt authenticated accounts. The arrangement muſt be left to the judgment and the taſte of the writer. Nothing would be eaſier than to find fault with any plan; but candid criticiſm will always be diſpoſed to give an author credit for having maturely digeſted his ſubject, and who will therefore have weighty reaſons for preferring his own method to that of any other that might be ſuggeſted by the captious and dogmatical. While however we are diſpoſed to allow this range to every writer who may come under our notice, we claim and ſhall exerciſe the right of ſuggeſting hints on whatever topics may ſeem to ſtand in need of improvement,

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in the hope that subsequent editions may be benefited by the remarks.

Mr. Pinkerton has informed us in the preface, that in his work the essence of innumerable books of travels and voyages will be found extracted. The embassies to China, Tibet, and Ava, have afforded him new and authentic materials. The researches of the Asiatic Society have enabled him to throw a new radiance over Hindostan; the labours of the African Society, the Travels of Park, Brown, and Barrow, have given precision to his accounts of Africa; and the journeys of Hearne and Mackenzie have materially aided him in fixing the northern boundaries of America. Having described the various advantages with which he set out, he warns his readers that the science must be regarded as imperfect in its very nature, as it cannot be expected that all the habitable lands shall, at any period of time, pass under a trigonometrical survey, the only standard of complete exactness. As a science, Geography is defective with regard to the greatest part of the interior of Africa,—many portions even of the shores are but little known: the same may be said of Tibet, and some central regions of Asia, of Persia, Arabia, and Asiatic Turkey; of the western part, and Spanish settlements of North America, of the central and southern parts of South America. In New Holland, New Guinea, and other parts of the Pacific Ocean, much remains for the patient investigation of the geographer. Even in Europe, the geography of Spain, of Portugal, and of European Turkey is still very imperfect.

Mr. Pinkerton having briefly described what has already been done, and what is still wanting, to perfect the science which he has undertaken to illustrate; and having rendered to his publishers the credit due to their great liberality, in sparing no expence in collecting materials of all kinds from all quarters; he informs us, that in the course of his work, the objects most essentially allied with each other are collected into distinct heads, or chapters, arranged in uniform progress; and instead of pretended histories, and prolix commercial documents, the chief attention is devoted to subjects strictly geographical. The states are arranged according to their comparative importance, as it is proper that the objects which deserve most attention should be treated at the greatest length, and claim the earliest observation of the student.

The first volume of the work before us is devoted to the geography of Europe, which the author divides into principal states, secondary states, and states of the third order. Before, however, he enters on the chief business of his work, he ex-

plains in general what is meant by and what may be expected in a ſyſtem of geography; he then gives a general view of the ſcience as applied to Europe, the firſt and principal diviſion of the globe, conſidering its extent and boundaries, its climate and ſeas; its population as it was in ancient times, and as it now exiſts; its rivers and mountains, and the nature of the government under which the ſeveral nations at preſent exiſt. With regard to the laſt topic, and to what is ſaid in defence of the plan adopted, Mr. Pinkerton ſhall ſpeak for himſelf.—

"The kingdoms and ſtates of Europe may be conſidered, 1. As deſpotic monarchies, as thoſe of Ruſſia and Turkey; 2. Abſolute monarchies, as Spain, Denmark, &c.; or, 3. Limited monarchies, as the Empire of Germany, Kingdom of Great Britain, &c. Since the fall of Venice, and the ſubverſion of Switzerland and Holland, ſcarcely an example occurs of permanent and fixed ariſtocracy, or the hereditary government of nobles. Of democracy, or, more ſtrictly ſpeaking, elective ariſtocracy, a few cities, and ſome Swiſs Cantons, may preſerve a ſemblance; while France at the preſent hour is a military deſpotiſm, under the name of a democratical republic.

"According to the plan of this work, already explained in the preface, the various ſtates of Europe will be arranged in three diviſions, conſidering them according to their real conſequence, as of the firſt, ſecond, or third order; and each will be treated at a length proportioned to its weight in the political ſcale, and the conſequent intereſt which it inſpires. A ſmall ſtate may indeed ſometimes excite a more juſt curioſity than one of larger dimenſions; but ſuch conſiderations are foreign to an exact ſyſtem of geography, detailed in a preciſe order of topics, and extended with impartial views over the whole circle of human affairs. Foreigners may object that too much ſpace is allotted to the Britiſh dominions; but the ſame objection might extend to every ſyſtem, ancient and modern, as the authors have always enlarged the deſcription of the countries in which they wrote. His native country ought alſo to be the chief ſubject of every reader; nor can much uſeful knowledge (for our knowledge chiefly ſprings from compariſon) be inſtituted concerning foreign regions, till after we have formed an intimate acquaintance with our native land. It will alſo be underſtood that, though no point of ſcience be more ſimple or clear than the arrangement of ſtates, according to their ſeparate orders, at a given period; yet it would be alike idle and preſumptuous to decide the preciſe rank of a ſtate in each order; for inſtance, whether France or Ruſſia be the moſt powerful. This part of the arrangement muſt therefore be elective; and it is ſufficient that the ſtates of the ſame order be treated with a ſimilar length of deſcription.

"At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the European ſtates compriſed in the firſt order are: 1. The United Kingdoms of Great Britain

Britain and Ireland: 2. France: 3. Ruſſia: 4. The Auſtrian Dominions: 5. Thoſe of Pruſſia: 6. Spain: 7. Turkey; which laſt cannot ſo juſtly be reduced to the ſecond order; for though perhaps approaching its fall, ſtill it boaſts the name and weight of an empire.

"Under the ſecond order have been arranged: 1. Holland, or the United Provinces: 2. Denmark: 3. Sweden: 4. Portugal: 5. Switzerland. In the third are conſidered the chief States of Germany, that labyrinth of geography, and thoſe of Italy. The kingdoms of Sicily and Sardinia might perhaps, if entire and unſhaken, aſpire to the ſecond order; and an equal ſtation might be claimed by the junctive Electorate Palatine and Bavaria, and by that of Saxony. But as ſuch ſtates only form rather ſuperior diviſions of Germany and Italy, it appeared more adviſeable to conſider them in their natural intimate connection with theſe countries."

That the reader may be acquainted with the method adopted by Mr. Pinkerton, through the whole of this work, we ſhall give a detailed analyſis of a ſingle article, from which a proper judgment may be formed of the reſt. The account of each particular country, where the ſubject will admit of it, is divided into four chapters. Of which, the *firſt* is intitled hiſtorical or progreſſive geography: the *ſecond* political geography: the *third* civil geography: and the *fourth* natural geography; to the laſt is generally attached an account of the iſlands in the vicinity of the country thus deſcribed.

To take England as an inſtance to illuſtrate the author's manner.—In the firſt chapter we have an account of the names, the extent, and original population of the country, as far back as it can be traced. The ſouthern Celts, or a people from the coaſts of France and Flanders, were, according to Mr. Pinkerton, the firſt inhabitants of this iſland. To the Celtic population ſucceeded the Gothic. The Scythians, or Goths, advancing from Aſia, drove the northern Celts before them, and ſeized on that part of Gaul which is neareſt to Great Britain, where they acquired the denomination of Belgæ. From France they paſſed to England, and may now be regarded as the chief anceſtors of the Engliſh nation; for the Saxons, Angles, and other northern invaders, were inconſiderable in numbers. From the population, Mr. Pinkerton proceeds to what he denominates "*progreſſive geography:*" and he obſerves, that when the Romans entered Britain, they found the country, like others in a ſavage ſtate, divided among a number of ſmall tribes. They eſtabliſhed large provinces. *Britannia Prima* embraced the whole ſouthern part of England, as far as the Severn and the Thames: *Britannia Secunda* correſponded to modern Wales: *Flavia Cæſarenſis* extended from the Thames to the Humber, a province which

received its name from the houſe of Veſpaſian and his two ſucceſſors, under whom the moſt important conqueſts were achieved: *Maxima Cæſarenſis* reached from the Humber to the Tyne, from the Merſey to the Solway.

Hence we are brought to the Saxon diviſion of the kingdom, with an account of the origin of ſome terms in common uſe, as ſhires, counties, tithings, &c. During the Norman period of our hiſtory, the geography of the country underwent but few alterations; the northern limits were extended to their preſent circuit; Cumberland and Weſtmoreland were wreſted from the Scots, and the provinces north of the Humber were completely incorporated.

Mr. Pinkerton next proceeds to mention the leading hiſtorical epochs of the country, as far as they are connected with the ſcience of Geography; and theſe lead to a deſcription of thoſe ancient monuments, by which facts in hiſtory are frequently illuſtrated. A part of this diſcuſſion we ſhall tranſcribe, as affording ſome good obſervations on antiquities, which have long been the admiration of travellers, both among our own countrymen and foreigners.

"A radical miſtake in the ſtudy of Engliſh antiquities has ariſen from the confuſion of the Celtic and Belgic languages and monuments. The druids have deſervedly attracted much curioſity and reſearch; but it would be erroneous to impute to them, as is uſual, the whole of our earlieſt remains. Cæſar ſpeaks of druidiſm as a recent inſtitution; and ſuch being the caſe, it is probable that it originated from the Phœnician factories, eſtabliſhed in wooden forteſſes on the coaſt, the uſual practice of commercial nations, when trading with ſavage or barbarous races. The tenets correſpond with what little exiſts of Phœnician mythology, and the miſſionaries of that refined people might be not a little zealous in their diffuſion. However this be, the ancient authors, from whom we derive our ſole authentic information concerning the druids, minutely deſcribe their religious rites, but are totally ſilent concerning any monuments of ſtone being uſed among them. On the contrary, they mention gloomy groves, and ſpreading oaks, as the only ſcenes of the druidic ceremonies. Yet our antiquaries will even infer, that Stonehenge is a druidic monument, though it be ſituated in an extenſive plain, where not a veſtige of wood appears, and where the very ſoil is reputed adverſe to its vegetation.

"It might, perhaps, be a vain effort of antiquarian inveſtigation, to attempt to diſcriminate the remains of the earlieſt inhabitants from thoſe of the druidic period; indeed, if we ſet aſide the authorities of modern antiquaries, commonly viſionary and diſcordant, there is no foundation whatever for any ſound or real knowledge of the ſubject. The following have been eſteemed druid monuments by Borlaſe: 1. Single ſtones erect: 2. Rock-idols and pierced ſtones: 3. Rocking-ſtones, uſed as ordeals: 4. Sepulchres of two, three,

three, or more ſtones: 5. Circular temples, or rather circles of erect ſtones: 6. Barrows, or tumuli; 7. Cromlechs, or heaps of ſtones: 8. Rock-baſons, imagined to have been uſed in druidic expiations: 9. Caves, uſed as places of retreat in time of war. But as moſt of thoſe relics may alſo be found in Germany and Scandinavia, it becomes hazardous to pronounce whether they be Gothic or Celtic; and, as we learn from ancient authors that the Germans had no druids, to beſtow the name of druidic, upon ſuch monuments, is the mere wantonneſs of conjecture. It is, however, moſt probable, that the earlieſt inhabitants, as is ever the practice in the infancy of ſociety, made uſe of wood, not ſtone, in their religious as well as in their domeſtic erections. If we ſurvey the various ſavage regions of the globe, we ſhall ſeldom or never perceive the uſe of ſtone; and it is certainly juſt to infer, that the ſavages of the weſt were not more ſkilful than thoſe of the eaſt; nor thoſe of the old continents and iſlands, than thoſe of the new. However this be, a learned ignorance upon ſuch topics is preferable to an aſſumed and imaginary knowledge."

The ſecond chapter, intitled "Political Geography," includes a brief but comprehenſive hiſtory of our conſtitution in church and ſtate. The account of the eſtabliſhed religion of the country, and of the ſeveral perſons connected with, and ſupported by it, is given in a conciſe way; and to young perſons and others, who have had few opportunities of ſtudying the ſubject, it will afford much uſeful inſtruction. Our author in this, as in other parts of his work, is not contented with a mere repetition of what has been ſaid a thouſand times before; he aſcends to the beſt authorities for facts, and arranges and condenſes them, in general, in a well formed narrative. In treating of the civil conſtitution, Mr. Pinkerton points out the duties, and prerogatives of the ſovereign; traces the origin of both houſes of parliament, and ſhews in what manner the important concerns of the nation are carried on. We follow him alſo to the courts of Judicature, and learn to reverence the conſtitution which has reared ſo many and ſtrong bulwarks in defence of the rights, the ſafety, and the happineſs of the individual.

In treating of the population, Mr. Pinkerton has collected into a point the opinions of various writers on the ſubject, has compared their diſcordant deciſions, and has ſhewn where the truth probably lies. We then have accounts of the army and navy: the latter he deſignates as the great rampart and ſupreme glory of Great Britain: the riſe and progreſs of this power are thus deſcribed.

"The naval power of Great Britain conſtitutes ſo ſtriking and important a feature in the national portrait, that it merits particular illuſtration. Even in the Saxon times we find conſiderable fleets

mentioned of the ſmall veſſels then in uſe. One of the Northumbrian monarchs aſſembled a numerous fleet near Jarro, the monaſtery of Beda, in an extenſive haven of the time, now become a ſalt-marſh. About the year 882, we find that Alfred directed a powerful fleet againſt the Daniſh invaders; but it is to be regretted that the early writers have not been more particular with regard to the number and form of the veſſels. The fleet of Edgar is alſo celebrated; but the author of the Saxon chronicle aſſures us, that the armament of Ethelred II. in the year 1009, exceeded any which England had ever before beheld; and as William of Malmeſbury computes that of Edgar at four hundred veſſels, this may probably have amounted to five hundred of the ſmall ſhips then known. But the devaſtations of the Danes and Normans occaſioned ſuch a decline in the naval power of England, that Richard I. was obliged to have recourſe to foreign veſſels for his cruſade. In the reign of John, we, for the firſt time, find commemorated a ſignal victory of the Engliſh and Flemings over the French fleet of Philip Auguſtus, which was computed at ſeventeen hundred ſhips, or rather boats. The Engliſh monarch John, inſolent in proſperity, mean in adverſity, in the pride of his triumph, was the firſt who ordered the ſalute to be paid by foreign veſſels to the national flag. The fleet of England thenceforth continued to be always reſpectable, and generally victorious. In the reign of Edward III. it had acquired ſuch pre-eminence, that in his gold coin, the firſt ſtruck in England, he appears in a ſhip, the ſymbol of commerce and maritime power; but the preponderance of the Engliſh armaments, over thoſe of France, only became permanent and deciſive, a little more than a century ago, after the battle of La Hogue. Spain had yielded the conteſt ſince the deſtruction of her great armada; and Holland had been greatly reduced in the naval conflicts under Charles II.; ſo that no other rival remained, and Great Britain maintains a fixed ſuperiority over the ocean. In the mechaniſm of ſhips, the French builders certainly excel; but in the ſoul of ſhips, ſpirited, alert, and ſkilful ſeamen, no country can pretend to vie with Great Britain.

Forces ſo immenſe as the army and navy of this country, cannot be ſupported but at enormous expences; the conſideration of which leads Mr. Pinkerton to deſcribe the revenue of the country, to ſhew how it is raiſed, and in what manner it is applied.

Under the title "Civil Geography," are included the manners and cuſtoms of the people, their language, literature, education, arts, cities, edifices, roads, inland navigation, manufactures and commerce. Theſe are fertile topics, and will afford room for much inſtruction and amuſement. In deſcribing, however, the manners and cuſtoms of the people, our author is frequently ſuperficial, conſequently but a ſmall part of the firſt volume is occupied with details on this ſubject; yet,

yet, in our eſtimation, there is no department of geographical ſcience more important, none in which, as men, we are more intereſted in being made acquainted with. Mr. Pinkerton's remarks with regard to the manners of the Engliſh evince no depth of thought; he confines them chiefly to the article of food. In ſpeaking of the amuſements, he ſingles out bell-ringing as peculiarly characteriſtic of the common people; which may ſurely be objected to, when it is conſidered, that in large country villages only a very few perſons can be employed in this way; and perhaps it rarely happens that ſo many perſons are attached to the amuſement as would double or triple the number of bells. If our memory be not unuſually treacherous, Dr. Wenderborne, and ſome other foreign writers, have given elaborate, entertaining, and, in general, juſt pictures, of the manners of the Engliſh, which Mr. Pinkerton has paſſed over ſo lightly. And Holinſhed's obſervations on this ſubject, taken from his Chronicle, which is here cited, affords an intereſting picture of former times, drawn apparently from life. As a national character, Mr. Pinkerton claims for the Engliſh the attribute of integrity, which, he ſays, has carried their credit and commerce to an extent before unknown in the hiſtory of nations.

The Engliſh language is, according to our author, derived from the Gothic and Latin, uniting the force of the former with the melody of the latter: in this ſketch it is traced through all its changes to the reign of James the Firſt, celebrated for the complete tranſlation of the Holy Scriptures, which is characteriſed as a noble ſpecimen of dignified proſe. Mr. Pinkerton's obſervations on the literature, the arts, and the education of the country, are appropriate to the ſeveral ſubjects; and from theſe he advances to a ſurvey of the metropolis and other large cities and towns in the kingdom. His deſcription of the former will introduce him to our readers in the character of a topographer.

"London, the metropolis of England, and perhaps the moſt populous and rich city on the face of the globe, is ſituated in an extenſive plain or valley, watered by the Thames, and only confined on the North by a few ſmall elevations; being a place of great antiquity, and firſt mentioned by Tacitus. It was in former times of far leſs extent, and ſurrounded with walls, but now includes Southwark, in itſelf a city, on the other ſide of the Thames, and Weſtminſter, another city on the Weſt; ſo that like ſome places of ancient geography, it might be named *Tripolis*, or three cities. The noble river Thames is here about 440 yards in breadth, and is crowned with three bridges; the moſt ancient of which was formerly covered with houſes and ſhops, now removed; but the inconveniencies it preſents to navigation cannot be ſo eaſily remedied. The Thames is crowded with a foreſt

foreſt of maſts, and conveys into London the wealth of the globe, forming an excellent port, without the danger of expoſure to maritime enmity. It is, however, a great defect, that, inſtead of open quays and ſtreets, on the banks of the ſtream, the view is obſtructed on both ſides by irregular maſſes of building, which do not even admit of a path. London preſents almoſt every variety which diverſifies human exiſtence: upon the Eaſt it is a ſea-port replete with mariners, and with the trades connected with that profeſſion. In the centre it is the ſeat of numerous manufactures and prodigious commerce; while the weſtern or faſhionable extremity, preſents royal and noble ſplendour, amidſt ſcenes of the higheſt luxury and moſt ruinous diſſipation.

"The population of London has by ſome been exaggerated to a million of ſouls; but by the moſt recent and authentic accounts, it does not contain above ſix hundred thouſand. Its length, from Hyde-Park corner on the Weſt to Poplar on the Eaſt, is about ſix miles; the breadth unequal, from three miles to one and leſs: the circumference may be about ſixteen miles. The houſes are almoſt univerſally of brick, and diſpoſed with inſipid ſimilarity; but in recompenſe, moſt of the ſtreets are excellently paved, and have convenient paths for foot-paſſengers; a mark of reſpect to the common people almoſt unknown to the capitals on the continent. Another national feature is, the abundance of charitable foundations for almoſt every infirmity and diſtreſs incident to human nature. The multitude and rich diſplay of the ſhops impreſs ſtrangers with aſtoniſhment; nor are they leſs ſurprized at the conſtant torrent of population rolling through the principal ſtreets, nor at the ſwarm of carriages at all times crowding all the roads to the capital; and the nocturnal illuminations, which extend even to four or five miles of the environs. Though the impreſſion of the tide be felt as far as Staines, the Thames at London, and a conſiderable way below, is untainted with ſalt. Its waters are raiſed by machinery, and conducted in innumerable pipes for domeſtic uſes, while the parts more remote are ſupplied with water from ſome ſmall ponds near Hampſtead; and from that laudable work of Middleton, the New River, which conveys a copious addition from the North. The water of the Thames is ſaid to impart peculiar qualities to the liquor called porter; but this idea, perhaps, only tends to ſtrengthen the monopoly of the London brewers."

Among the edifices noticed by Mr. Pinkerton, are Windſor Palace, the Obſervatories at Greenwich and Slough, and many of the houſes of our principal nobility and gentry. The two iron bridges claiming a place in this work are one at Colebrook Dale, and another thrown over the harbour at Sunderland. The next article is that of Inland Navigation, of which we have a conciſe hiſtory, and brief review of the ſeveral canals proceeding from North to South. We paſs next to the Manufactures and Commerce: of theſe, Mr. Pinkerton has given a very flattering account, taken, however, from authorities

rities that will not be disputed. According to this account, the total amount of property shipped and unshipped in the river Thames, in the course of a year, is estimated at nearly sixty-seven millions sterling. The annual income of Great Britain is given from the estimate of Mr. Pitt when he introduced the income-tax, and laid at 102 millions. And the capital of Great Britain is laid at 1200 millions sterling. How far these calculations may be depended on as accurate, will admit of considerable doubt, as it is now well known that the result of Mr. Pitt's estimate was very different from that which he had anticipated.

The chapter on "Natural Geography" includes whatever relates to the climate, seasons, and face of the country; to its soil, agriculture, rivers, lakes, mountains, and forests; to its botany, zoölogy, mineralogy, mineral waters, and natural curiosities. Each of these subjects affords our author an opportunity of displaying his industry and talents; and we might, in almost every chapter in the book which relates to "Natural Geography," make copious and interesting extracts. The subjects which we have just enumerated belong to the science, according to the best definition of it; hence, perhaps, we feel more interested in the discussions than we are in others which are but remotely connected with it. Mr. Pinkerton, in common with almost every other writer on the subject, complains of the mutability, the moisture, and fogginess of the climate, which, "with the great use of gross animal food, are apt to produce that melancholy, which is esteemed by foreigners a national characteristic." Mr. Pinkerton has, in the beginning of the former chapter asserted, that what are called "national characters," are commonly monuments of prejudice and injustice: to this we heartily agree, and on that account we are unwilling to admit that melancholy is the characteristic of Englishmen. The deportment of our countrymen is undoubtedly very different from that of the French or Italians; yet it were surely more reasonable to impute to the latter an undue levity and unconcern for the business of life, than, to the English, settled discontent and melancholy. By many, suicide has been imputed to the English as a national crime, resulting from the nature of their climate; this, however, like many other sweeping assertions, does not appear to be founded upon any well-grounded facts, but the result of prejudice and injustice. If, instead of hasty assertions, people would patiently compare the number of fine days which we enjoy in comparison of those which wear a different aspect, they would be convinced that there was no just reason why the English should complain of the dispensations of Heaven in giving them a no more

more favourable climate. Beſides, ſuicide is not peculiar to the Engliſh; modern travellers, of credit and reſpectability, have aſſured us that this crime is much more frequent in Paris than it is in London; indeed, that the number who die by their own hands in this metropolis will bear no ſort of proportion with that guilty of the ſame unnatural crime in the metropolis of France, the climate of which is reckoned ſo ſuperior to what we enjoy.

The account of the face of the country is chiefly taken from that accurate obſerver and ſkilful naturaliſt, Mr. Pennant. Some of the obſervations on its ſoil and agriculture we ſhall tranſcribe, becauſe they relate to a ſubject of high national importance, upon which prejudices ſtill run very high. The incloſing of waſte and uncultivated land meets with many fierce oppoſers in almoſt every part of our iſland; but if they could be convinced of the real ſtate of the caſe, if they could be fully perſuaded that our conſumption of corn is greater than our produce, few would be ſo unwiſe as to oppoſe thoſe national ſchemes of improvement which muſt neceſſarily meliorate our condition, and eventually render us independent of the ſupply from foreign nations, of the article of the firſt neceſſity.

"It is mortifying to reflect upon two circumſtances, the deficiency of a proper ſupply of grain, and the immenſe extent of the waſte lands in this induſtrious country. The cultivated acres in England and Wales are computed at upwards of 39,000,000, while thoſe uncultivated are 7,888,777. Of theſe, it is ſuppoſed that not above half a million is wholly unimprovable, and perhaps a million is only fit for plantations; while, of the remainder, one quarter is fit for tillage, and three fourths for meadow and upland paſture. Mr. Middleton computes the arable land in South Britain at only 14,000,000 of acres, upon a general view of the conſumption of the country, as we import corn proportionate to the produce of 378,000 acres. He ſuppoſes the ſtate of crops on each 10,000,000 of acres to be as follows:

	Acres.
Wheat	2,750,000
Oats and Beans	2,500,000
Barley and Rye	750,000
Roots	1,000,000
Clover	1,000,000
Fallow	2,000,000
Total	10,000,000

"The utility of fallow is a dubious topic; and the million in clover may be arranged as paſturage, which otherwiſe occupies not leſs than 21,000,000 of acres, while 2,000,000 are aſſigned to woods, copſes,

copſes, and hedge-rows; and more than 1,500,000 are unavoidably conſumed in roads, rivers, and waters, &c. The ſubject can only be well diſcuſſed by the moſt competent judges; but it may be curſorily obſerved, that, as the radical error of French agriculture was an exceſs of land under grain, whence there was a deficiency of paſture, of cattle, and conſequently of manure, ſo that the arable ground was ſtarved: ſo in England there may, perhaps, be an exceſs of paſturage. Whatever be the cauſes, a growing population, certainly increaſing luxury and waſte, the neglect of the waſte lands, or other ſources, the conſumption of grain in this country has, it is believed, ſince the middle of the laſt century, particularly ſince 1767, generally exceeded the produce; and the evil has gradually increaſed to an alarming extent. On an average of eleven years, cloſing with 1793, the annual deficiency amounted to 587,163 quarters of grain; nay, in 1795, the ſcarcity demanded a ſtill further ſupply of 1,177,000 quarters; which, alſo, divided by 11, will produce the whole annual defect of 694,163 quarters. Computing produce at three quarters an acre, the land required, excluſive of the ſeed, would be 231,388 acres cropped with corn; while about half as much muſt be added for fallow and the rotation of crops. For an abundant ſupply, 500,000 of acres might be requiſite, which might ſeemingly be aſſumed with little difficulty from at leaſt 1,500,000 waſte acres in South Britain, which are fit for tillage. Yet this calculation would infer, that the deficiency does not exceed the twenty-eighth part of the whole, which ſeems too ſmall, as the bread has been doubled in price: and, indeed, theſe theoretic views can never pretend to much exactneſs. If South Britain annually produce 11,500,000 quarters of wheat, the deficiency can hardly be ſuppoſed leſs than a tenth part. Scarcity, indeed, multiplies the conſumption, as the poor are reduced to the uſe of bread only; but ſtill the riſe in the price of that article appears to exceed any fair calculation."

Without enlarging on the account of rivers, lakes, mountains, and foreſts, in which we find nothing that has great claims on account of their novelty, we paſs on to the article Botany, which, throughout the whole work, is written by Mr. Arthur Aikin. How well calculated this gentleman is for the department aſſigned to him by Mr. Pinkerton, will be better diſplayed by the following ſhort extract than by any encomiums that we could offer:

"Among the numerous ſpecies of vegetables which are natives of Britain, ſcarcely any are adequate to the ſuſtenance and cloathing of man. Our frequent rains, our blaſting winds, and the ſcanty portion to which we are ſtinted of the light and heat of the ſun, deprive us entirely of thoſe vegetable treaſures, which, in the tropical climates, offer themſelves in overflowing exuberance, to ſatisfy the wants and luxurious deſires of their human inhabitants. The never-failing verdure of our plains and hills, covered with a rich carpet of graſſes and papilionaceous plants, ſhews how admirably our

our country is qualified for the ſupport of graminivorous quadrupeds; and we find accordingly, that our ancient foreſts abounded in ſtags and roe-deer, as our cleared and cultivated lands do now with ſheep and cattle. This ſeeming partiality of nature, in thus ſcanting to man the ſupply of vegetable food, while it is profuſely offered to the grazing herds of every kind, by obliging the early ſettlers in this iſland to depend for their ſupport principally upon the fleſh of animals, gave them ſtronger motives to perſonal exertion than an equal ſtate of civilization in a warmer climate could have afforded. While the native of the tropical regions was receiving from the unpurchaſed bounty of nature his regular and plentiful ſupply of cocoa-nuts, bananas, and bread-fruit, the Briton was obliged to earn his daily food by the hard labour of each day, to chaſe the flying deer through the woods, or to diſpute his prey with the boar or the wolf. Thus, by the ſeverity of the climate, and the want of vegetable food, was the firſt germ of exertion ripened into activity; which, by the combined influence of luxury and neceſſity, has at length laid all the vegetable riches of the globe at our feet.

"In the general progreſſion of ſcience, botany has advanced with rapid ſteps, and has been cheriſhed with peculiar fondneſs in our native iſland. The Flora of Britain, though it cannot boaſt the moſt ſplendid and exquiſite of vegetable productions, yet contains as great a variety of genera and ſpecies, as any other country of equal extent. The inveſtigation of indigenous, as well as exotic plants, is continually carrying on here with increaſing ardour, and every year brings new acceſſions to our crowded ranks of native vegetables. It cannot be expected, therefore, that we ſhould give a particular account of each ſpecies, and it would be but little agreeable or uſeful, to offer to our readers a barren liſt of Linnæan nomenclature; we ſhall, therefore, chuſe a middle courſe, by giving a general view of the natural families under which the plants of England arrange themſelves; and particularize, by name only, ſuch ſpecies as from their utility or rarity, or other circumſtances, may be worthy of individual notice."

Mr. Pinkerton's view of zoölogy is ſhort, but comprehenſive and ſatisfactory: the ſubject of mineralogy could ſcarcely have fallen into better hands than his own. Among other mineral ſubſtances deſcribed as peculiar to England, are the ſalt mines and ſalt ſprings in Cheſhire, which were known in the Saxon period of our hiſtory. From theſe we proceed to the mineral waters, and afterwards to the natural curioſities; ſome of which are thus enumerated:

"The ſub-marine relics of a foreſt, on the coaſt of Lincolnſhire, may be deſervedly claſſed among the moſt remarkable natural curioſities. Nor are the lofty chalk-cliffs of Dover without their claim. The cavern near Ryegate, in Surrey, deſcending through a hill of the fineſt and moſt ſplendid ſand, muſt rather claim an artificial origin. At Broſely, in Shropſhire, was a well ſo impregnated with

with bitumen, that, on the application of a candle, the ſtream took fire, and would boil a tea-kettle in nine minutes; but, by opening other coal-pits in the vicinity, this phenomenon diſappeared: a ſimilar appearance and event alſo occurred in Lancaſhire. But Shropſhire ſtill contains a remarkable well of bitumen, at a place thence ſtyled Pitchford. Cheddar cliffs, in Somerſetſhire, may alſo be mentioned among the natural curioſities; and the Mendip-hills are not without their caverns, particularly Wookey-hole, near Wells, a ſtalactitic cavern of about 600 feet in length, divided by low paſſages into various apartments; one of which, called the hall, ſomewhat reſembles a Gothic chapel, and is ſaid to be eighty feet in height; while the furtheſt, ſtyled the parlour, is of moderate height but extenſive diameter. On the N. W. ſide of the Mendip-hills, is a yet more remarkable curioſity, a conſiderable cavern, at the bottom of a deep ravine, near the little village of Burington or Burrington. Here a number of human bones, gradually incorporating with the limeſtone rock; there being a continual dripping from the roof and ſides, which depoſits a ſtalactitic ſediment on the bones. Several nodules contain perfect human ſkulls. At the further end, where the height is about fifteen feet, there is a large conic ſtalactite, which nearly meets a pillar riſing from the floor. This cave was only diſcovered about two years ago; and as the matter increaſes ſo faſt, it is conjectured that it would ſoon have been cloſed up. Hence it is probable that theſe bones are of no remote antiquity, and may, perhaps, be the remains of ſome wretches who had here taken ſhelter from the cruelty of Jefferies, after the inſurrection of Monmouth *."

The Engliſh Iſlands briefly deſcribed are, the Iſle of Wight, Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Eddiſtone, Scilly, Lundy, the iſles of Angleſea, Man, and Thanet.

Having preſented our readers with a general analyſis of one, and that the firſt article in the volume, it will not be expected that much more ſhould be ſaid of the European ſtates. The plan adopted with regard to England, is executed in a ſimilar ſtyle with reſpect to the other empires, kingdoms, and republics. A much larger portion of the firſt volume is taken up in deſcribing the United Kingdoms than could be poſſibly allowed to any of the other European nations. This was natural, and what might be expected from an Engliſh geographer; ſtill, however, the ſpaces allotted to each country might have been

"* There is a remarkable cave, or rather pit, ſuppoſed to be an ancient mine, called Penpark-hole, about five miles north of Briſtol. A pamphlet, publiſhed by Mr. Catcott, contains the dimenſions of this horrible chaſm, and an affecting account of the fate of Mr. Newman, who fell into the gulf while he was meaſuring its depth."

been more proportionate than we find them. In the account of France, we meet with a very useful table, describing the ancient provinces, and the several new departments which answer to them. The history of that country is divided and arranged under fifteen epochs, beginning with the primitive population of the Celts, and concluding with the late revolution. The description of French manners and customs is scanty, and, we think, not accurate in all its points. In speaking of the agriculture of France, Mr. Pinkerton has followed Mr. Arthur Young in comparing and appreciating the French and English systems, giving a decided preference to the latter. We are, however, inclined to believe, that the state of agriculture under the new order of things has been considerably improved; which will render the account taken from Mr. Young's work unfit to be depended on as a modern standard.

The Netherlands have been united to the French dominions, and might have been described under the same head, but our author has given them a distinct chapter. Of the manners and customs of the Russians we have a good account. Petersburg, according to Mr. Pinkerton, contains only about 170,000 inhabitants, a number, we apprehend, much too low. We have seen other facts relating to other parts of Europe, which, we suspect, are not perfectly correct; but it was our object to give such a view of the work in general as should enable our readers to form a judgment of its merit, and not to enter into any minutiæ. Indeed, in a literary production of such magnitude as Mr. Pinkerton's Geography, it was not possible, that, in the first impression, mistakes should not occur. Much praise is due to the author that they happen so seldom, and that, upon careful examination, we can, without hesitation, recommend the first volume as containing a larger body of real and highly useful information on Geography, and all subjects connected with that science, than is to be found in any other work in our language.

As an appendix to this volume, we have the treaties of Campo Formio in 1797, and of Luneville in 1801, which introduced considerable alterations into the European geography; and on that account it was fit that the reader should be in possession of them: and also, the treaty of peace between Great Britain and the French Republic, concluded at Amiens March the 27th 1802.

The second volume of this work includes the geography of Asia, America, and Africa. The account of Asia is introduced with a classification of the tribes from whence the population of that division of the globe is derived, according to the Linnæan

Linnæan ſyſtem; and in a note is exhibited an account of the ſhare of population which Europe has received from Aſia. The diſcuſſions in this preliminary diſſertation will be read with intereſt, and the inferences drawn from them merit a place in a work of modern geography. Hence it appears, that the diſcoveries in Aſia, which had been nearly dormant from the time of Ptolemy, began to revive in the thirteenth century by means of the extenſive conqueſts of Zingis;—that not more than a quarter of Aſia was known to the ancients;—that Marco Polo, by his travels in the fourteenth century, eſtabliſhed a memorable epoch in Geography, by paſſing to China, and diſcloſing the extent of that country, the iſlands of Japan, and a faint intelligence of other regions, the accounts of which have been illuſtrated and confirmed by more modern voyagers. After this, two centuries nearly elapſed before Columbus commenced his career of diſcovery, who was led by the relation of Polo to conceive, that the ſhores of Aſia might be reached by a ſhort navigation from the weſtern extremity of Europe.

Having conſidered the progreſſive geography of Aſia, and referred generally to the various religions profeſſed in that quarter of the globe;—to the ſeas, the lakes, and rivers and mountains connected with it; our author begins his particular deſcriptions with an account of Turkey in Aſia. From Turkey he proceeds to Aſiatic Ruſſia; the Chineſe empire, conſidered under the diſtinct heads of China Proper, Chineſe Tartary, and Tibet; and Japan. Each of theſe countries are deſcribed under the ſame diviſions of hiſtorical, political, civil, and natural geography, as we obſerved of the European ſtates, and with as much minuteneſs as the nature of the ſubject required, or as the preſent ſtate of knowledge admitted. Original writers and travellers are referred to, their works cited, and the obligations under which our author is to them for materials, handſomely acknowledged.

From Japan we are introduced to the Birman empire, a geographical diviſion not uſually found in works of this ſort. This empire includes the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu, for the accurate knowledge of which the public is indebted to Mr. Symes's account of the embaſſy to Ava. The Birman empire derives its name from the Birmahs, a warlike nation in the region formerly ſtyled *India beyond the Ganges*. The capital is Ava: Pegu is inferred to be the golden Cherſoneſe of the ancients. This empire, according to Mr. Symes, includes the ſpace between the 9th and 26th degrees of North latitude, and between the 92d and 107th degrees of Eaſt longitude from Greenwich. Mr. Pinkerton has been enabled to treat of this country in the ſame manner as thoſe already alluded to. In

the firſt chapter, we have a ſhort hiſtory of the empire from the time that the Portugueze made themſelves maſters of Malacca to the year 1793. Under the article "Political Geography," we are informed, that every man in the empire is liable to military ſervice, but that the regular army is very inconſiderable. During war, the viceroys raiſe one recruit from every two, three, or four houſes. The family of the ſoldier is detained as hoſtages, and in caſe of cowardice or deſertion they ſuffer death. The infantry are armed with muſkets and ſabres, but the cavalry carry ſpears ſeven or eight feet long. War-boats form their chief military eſtabliſhment, conſiſting of about 500, made from the ſolid trunk of the teak-tree. They carry 50 or 60 rowers; the prow being ſolid, with a flat ſurface, on which a piece of ordnance is mounted. Each rower is provided with a ſword and lance, and there are thirty ſoldiers armed with muſkets. The attack is impetuous, and chiefly conducted by grappling: "Their naval actions," ſays Mr. Pinkerton, "recal to remembrance thoſe of claſſical antiquity."

We have now brief accounts of Malacca, Laos, Cambodia, Siampa, Cochin-China, and Tunquin; but the geography of Siam is treated in the uſual and more ample method, taken chiefly from La Loubere, who was envoy extraordinary from Louis XIV. to the Siameſe court.

In treating of Hindoſtan, our author has followed the general plan adopted by Major Rennell, according to which the Britiſh, the Marattas, and the Nizam, are regarded as the three leading powers: to theſe may be added, on the Weſt, the Sindetic diviſion, the Seiks, and Zemaun Shah, or whatever prince holds the Eaſtern diviſion of Perſia. To perſons who wiſh to gain a good general idea of Eaſt-India concerns, we can recommend the whole of the diviſion of this work which is devoted to Hindoſtan. The improved table from Major Rennell's memoir, with illuſtrations, is calculated, with a good map, to render the ſubject eaſy and familiar to the mind. The account of whatever relates to the geography, and the preſent ſtate of that widely extended country, abounds with inſtruction. The deſcription of the laws, the religion, and the manners and cuſtoms of the inhabitants, is drawn from the moſt authentic and unqueſtionable ſources; that of the natural curioſities,—of the majeſtic rivers, of the mighty mountains, and of the wonders raiſed by art, of the zöology and mineralogy of Hindoſtan, introduces to the imagination of the reader the ſcenery as it exiſts.

The next thing that particularly claims our notice is the manner adopted by Mr. Pinkerton in treating of the Aſiatic iſles. After a general introduction, explanatory of the arrangement

rangement which follows, he divides them all under three general heads; denominated, 1. The ORIENTAL ARCHIPELAGO; including the iſles of Sunda, Borneo, the Manillas, the Celebees, and the Spice Iſlands: 2. AUSTRALASIA; which contains New Holland, or Notaſia; Papua, or New Guinea; New Britain and New Ireland, with the Solomon Iſles; New Caledonia, and the New Hebrides; New Zealand, and Van Diemen's Land: and, 3. POLYNESIA; the chief ſubdiviſions of which are, the Pelew Iſles; the Ladrones; the Carolines; the Sandwich Iſles; the Marqueſas; the Society and the Friendly Iſles; beſides which, there are many other iſlands ſcattered in different directions: theſe are, of themſelves, but of trifling conſequence, and could not, without difficulty, be connected with any of the groups already mentioned. By this arrangement, Mr. Pinkerton has introduced a degree of order and perſpicuity into the ſcience, which it never before poſſeſſed. With reſpect to all theſe iſlands, much intereſting information is collected, from the accounts of the moſt modern voyagers upon whoſe veracity no ſuſpicion has fallen. The contemplation of human nature, in ſo many different aſpects as are here, in a ſhort compaſs, preſented to the imagination, cannot but excite a variety of emotions in the feeling breaſt; and we envy not the underſtanding of thoſe who, comparing the advantages which attach to civilized life with the manners and habits of the untutored Indian, can ſeriouſly give the preference to the latter.

From Aſia our author proceeds to America, as far more important in every reſpect, political and natural, than Africa. America he conſiders under the two grand general heads of North and South. As more generally intereſting, North America is firſt conſidered, under the ſeveral diviſions, with a hiſtory of the riſe, progreſs, and extent of each. In deſcribing this quarter of the globe and Africa, Mr. Pinkerton has gone to the moſt authentic ſources for information; and if we were not fearful of exceeding the limits which are allowed to a ſingle article, we ſhould be glad to follow him in the tract which he has purſued. In America, the wonders of nature are among the moſt ſtupendous objects of the world; and the deſcription of theſe in the volume before us are calculated to excite a lively intereſt in the reader's breaſt. In the account of the religion of the Mexicans, the author records well authenticated facts, incorporated with his own ſpirited and judicious obſervations.

"The religion of the ancient Mexicans appears to have been chiefly founded on fear, the temples being decorated with the figures of deſtructive animals; and faſts, penances, voluntary

wounds, and tortures, formed the eſſence of their rites. Human ſacrifices were deemed the moſt acceptable; and every captive taken in war was cruelly tortured and ſacrificed. The heart and head were the portion of the gods; while the body was reſigned to the captor, who, with his friends, feaſted upon it. The extinction of ſuch a ferocious people may not be worthy of much regret; but modern philoſophy is apt to decide, on a ſlight and imperfect view.

"Thus, inſtead of a benevolent deity, the worſhip of the Mexicans may be ſaid to have been directed to the evil principle of ſome oriental nations, whom all their efforts were ſtretched to appeaſe. In the Mexican language, *Teotl* was a general term for any divinity; and in obſcure theory they believed in a creator whom they ſtyled *Ipalnemoani*, that is, "he by whom we live:" but their ſupreme deity was rather that evil ſpirit called *Klacatcolototl*, or the rational owl, whoſe delight was to injure and terrify. They believed in the immortality of the ſoul, and a kind of tranſmigration; the good being transformed into birds, and the bad into creeping animals. The principal deities were thirteen in number, among whom were the ſun and moon; and Tlaloc, the god of water, was the maſter of paradiſe; but Mexitli, the god of war, received the chief adoration. There were other gods, of the mountains, of commerce, &c. and the idols, rudely formed of clay, wood, or ſtone, ſometimes decorated with gems and gold, were numerous. One was compoſed of certain ſeeds, paſted together with human blood. The prieſts wore a black cotton mantle, like a veil; and there ſeem to have been orders of monks, as among the Eaſtern nations of Aſia. The auſterities and voluntary wounds of the prieſts, their poiſonous ointments, and other abominable rites, even as related by Clavigero, evince that the entire ſyſtem was the moſt execrable that has ever appeared on the face of the earth, alike blaſphemous to God and pernicious to man. The whole is ſo totally unlike any ſyſtem ever practiſed in any part of Aſia, that there is additional cauſe to believe that the people were either indigenal, or have proceeded from Africa, in which alone (as among the Giagas) ſuch cruelties may be traced. The Aſiatic religions ſeem univerſally mild, and even gay, as natural in the worſhip of a being who is benevolence itſelf; while in Africa the preponderance of the evil ſpirit ſeems to have been acknowledged by many nations. Certainly the Spaniards never ſacrificed more victims than the Mexicans themſelves devoted; and the clamours of pretended philoſophy will often be found in oppoſition to the real cauſe of humanity, which it aſpires to defend. Could a change of manners have been effected without the uſe of the ſword, it would have been highly deſirable; but the deſign might have been as fruitleſs as a ſermon to a tiger or a rattleſnake. The cruelties of the Spaniards muſt, by candour, be partly imputed to the profuſion of torture and human blood which every where met their eyes in this unhappy country; as ſuch ſcenes change the very nature of man, and inflame him like the carnage of a battle."

In

In deſcribing the native tribes and unconquered countries of North America, our author has had recourſe to three very intelligent modern travellers in thoſe parts. Meſſrs. Cartwright, Hearne, and Mackenzie, have very much enlarged the boundaries of our knowledge with regard to theſe uncultivated people; and from their accounts Mr. Pinkerton has collected whatever is moſt intereſting and valuable, and that tends to illuſtrate the manners and habits of the human ſpecies. Leſs is known of the native tribes in South America; of courſe but a ſmall ſpace in theſe volumes is devoted to the deſcription of them.

The geography of Africa is but little known; and though a ſpirit of diſcovery is gone forth with regard to this continent, yet the facts are ſtill too ſcanty to admit of that ample diſcuſſion reſpecting the ſeveral kingdoms, which has been ſucceſsfully employed in deſcribing the more important countries of Europe, Aſia, and America. A future, and perhaps no very diſtant period, may enable European geographers to be more minute in their deſcriptions, and more particular in the diviſions of this vaſt continent. The labours of a Parke, a Browne, and a Horneman, cannot fail of public utility; and we may anticipate the period when geographical inquiries and commercial purſuits will introduce the nations of the whole world to one another,—when a thouſand unmeaning diſtinctions ſhall be forgotten,—when the poliſhed and civilized European ſhall no longer traffic in the blood of the African, but when all people ſhall delight to benefit and bleſs each other by a mutual tender of good ſervices.

Although we have taken up ſo much time in deſcribing theſe volumes, we truſt that no apology will be neceſſary. They may, in ſome reſpects, be conſidered as a ſort of national work: another of the ſame ſort cannot be expected for many years. Mr. Pinkerton, by his induſtry, and by the order which he has followed and maintained, has rendered geography more ſcientific: by the arrangement that he has adopted, the ſtudy of this department of uſeful learning will be rendered eaſy and engaging to our youth; new diſcoveries will not ſuperſede his labours; additions may be made to the general ſtock of knowledge; and the ſcholar will at all times be able to arrange new facts in their proper place and order, without leſſening the value of the work before us. In this view, Mr. Pinkerton's accuracy in referring to all the original authors to whom he has been indebted, cannot be too much applauded; for if the facts with regard to any country be contradicted by more modern travellers, it will now be in the power of each

individual to compare the different authorities, and appreciate their merits and credit for himself.

Hitherto we have said nothing of the introduction to these volumes: it is what may be called an astronomical introduction, and executed by Mr. Vince, a gentleman too well known for his various and elaborate works in science, particularly in astronomy, to stand in need of our encomiums: those who are acquainted with his large work on this branch of science need only to be informed, that the greater part of the introduction to Mr. Pinkerton's Geography is confined to the illustration of general facts, which are useful to be known, and which are demonstrated in that larger work. Mathematical demonstrations would here have been misplaced, and here they are properly avoided. Mr. Vince has given a short account of meteorology, with brief descriptions of the various instruments made use of in the pursuit. Afterwards, we meet with a number of facts connected with the mineral waters, and the newly discovered gases, collected from our best writers, as Dr. Priestley, Ingenhouse, Lavoisier, &c. The whole is concluded with an account of the different measures used by different countries.

Of the maps that accompany this work we must say a few words: they are executed on a plan entirely new; but in many of them we have found inaccuracies, and, which is a very great fault, the names of places, in a great variety of instances, are spelt differently on the maps and in the book; a circumstance that ought to be attended to in a subsequent edition.

CXXVII. *Indian Recreations; consisting chiefly of Strictures on the domestic and rural Economy of the Mahommedans and Hindoos. By the Rev. William Tennant, LL.D. M.A.S. and lately one of his Majesty's Chaplains in India.* 8vo. 2 vol. pp. 812, plates; price 18s. Edinburgh, Anderson; and London, Longman and Rees, 1803.

INDIA has always been an object of eager inquiry among European nations; yet, notwithstanding its intimate connection with our country, the authentic documents which treat of the manners and political economy of the parts subjected to the power of the East India Company, are so few, that the curiosity of the public is still unsatisfied.

Dr. Tennant, in accompanying some of his Majesty's forces in India, was led to collect such facts as came to his knowledge respecting that country. He acknowledges the polite attention paid to him by Lieutenant-General Sir James Craig; also

alſo by Major-Generals Alexander Mackenſie, and Hay Macdowall; and he ſays,

"Another ſource of information was frequently afforded me by the converſation and writings of ſeveral intelligent natives of India, both Muſſulmans and Hindoos. Whatever was found difficult or obſcure, theſe men were referred to for elucidation, as the beſt qualified to decide on their manners and inſtitutions. Gholam Hoſſein Khan, Abu Taleb Khan, and Ram Jeet Sing, as often as they were conſulted on doubtful points, ſupplied more correct information; they are men of noble birth and conſiderable rank, but ſtill more diſtinguiſhed, among their countrymen, by their extenſive knowledge, and reſpectability of character." i. 8.

Although the language of this ſhort extract, which is a favourable ſpecimen of the author's literary merits, rendered it impoſſible for us to expect an elegant work; yet, we certainly hoped, from conſidering the means of inveſtigation thus amply poſſeſſed, to have peruſed an inſtructive and amuſing one. In this expectation, we have been much diſappointed. The deſultory manner in which every thing is treated, and alſo ſome apparent contradictions, may, in a meaſure, be excuſed, on account of the ſeveral ſubjects being ſucceſſively brought forward as they aroſe in the mind of the author. We muſt however remark, that when the work was publiſhed, it certainly behoved the author to have noticed his original miſapprehenſions, and corrected them, as they occurred. But a more ſerious defect ariſes from the inveterate national prejudices (to uſe the ſofteſt phraſe) which pervade the whole performance. Dr. Tennant, as the title of his book in ſome meaſure imports, omits no opportunity to vilify the natives of this extenſive country, and he is equally inclined to praiſe the government of the company. The nature of the ſubject, however, which neceſſarily obliges him to enter into minute details reſpecting the private life, and manners, not only of the natives, but alſo of the Britiſh ſojourners there, is very unfavourable for the purpoſe of miſrepreſentation. Hence, the inconſiſtency between the facts he relates, and his reflections upon them, are ſo glaring, that he has done much miſchief, even to the very cauſe which he meant, we believe, to ſupport.

The accounts collected by the author, notwithſtanding the parade he makes reſpecting the high ſources from whence he has drawn them, have ſeldom much intereſt; they exhibit, indeed, a ſtate of manners different from thoſe of the preſent age in Europe: but the obſervations which are introduced reſpecting the learning and the religions of the country, are by no means diſtinguiſhed by any originality of remark, or peculiar acumen. The ſuperiority of the Chriſtian religion, in

reſpect to morals, is certainly indiſputable; yet we apprehend that Dr. T. has been too ſevere in his animadverſions on the Mahommedan and Hindoo ſyſtems. On account of the ill ſucceſs of the European miſſions, the author propoſes to open Engliſh free ſchools in Calcutta, in which, under pretence of teaching the language, the attachment of the native children to the religion of their parents might be gradually weakened. The inſidiouſneſs of the ſcheme here propoſed, ſo contrary, in our opinion, to the purity of the Goſpel, is a great objection. We ſhould prefer the encouragement of the ſtudy of Brahminical learning in our own Univerſities, and the publication of controverſial works in a cheap form, in India.

The ſtrictures upon the domeſtic economy of the natives turn chiefly on the great number of ſervants retained;—a circumſtance which is perpetually obtruded upon the reader, although certainly of little moment. The obſervations on the huſbandry of the country form the moſt inſtructive part of work. In the huſbandry, we obſerve the uſual defects, and we may add benefits, which ariſe from the ſmallneſs of the farms, and the poverty of the farmers. The neceſſity of an immediate ſale, frequently before the reaping of the crop, renders proviſions cheap in the firſt inſtance; but, on the other hand, the inability of keeping a ſufficient ſtock to provide againſt the failure of a harveſt, cauſes frequent famines.

The number of Indian terms which we meet with in this, and other works on theſe countries, however it may be overlooked in the private communications of friends, can never be conſidered but as a moſt ſerious defect in thoſe works which are given to the public. This defect is increaſed in the volumes before us, by the very different manner in which the ſame word is frequently ſpelled. Thus, in vol. i. p. 262, we have *vaaca naviſe*, which, in p. 343, is ſpelled *wakyatnaavees*. The frequent uſe of Indian words ariſes, no doubt, from the youth and inexperience of the Europeans who flock to India, before they have acquired a ſufficient knowledge of their own language, and the circumſcribed means they poſſeſs of acquiring this knowledge, on account of the ſcarcity of books, and their other engagements.

This failure is common to the author, and to other writers on Indian affairs; but we meet with many errors peculiar to himſelf, and ſuch as we ſhould not have expected from the member of a learned body. In vol. i. p. 195, we are told, that "the figure of Pallas was conſecrated to Oſiris and to Bacchus; at the feſtivals of the former, it was carried by the

the women of Egypt, as the figure of Lingam is at preſent by the women of India." To ſubſtitute the name of a virgin goddeſs, for the Phallus, an emblem of an entirely oppoſite nature, is perfectly ludicrous. The account that Dr. Tennant gives of an Indian village, and the wonders he ſees in every thing belonging to it, with the pompous manner in which he endeavours to ſecure the credibility of his narrative, are equally amuſing.

This village, ſituated about thirty-ſix miles from Benares, contains about 1000 perſons of all ages. The firſt wonder Dr. T. finds, is, that the carpenter and "ironſmith" are two ſeparate trades. Surely when we conſider the difference of the materials on which they work, we cannot form any idea of their ever being united as a joint profeſſion. Waſhing being carried on as a trade, Dr. T. conſiders as owing either to the "indolence or ſuperſtition" of the natives. We do not ſee how this obſervation applies excluſively to India, as the ſame cuſtom prevails in England, and, we believe, in moſt parts of Europe. Dr. T. who ſees ſuperſtition in every occurrence, aſſigns alſo the ſame motive for the villagers not ſhaving themſelves; although, from the various parts which their delicacy cauſes them to ſubmit to that operation, it is ſcarcely poſſible to be performed by the party himſelf. He here tells his correſpondent, that this profeſſion is not common in his part of the world. What ſequeſtered corner his friend reſides in, we are not informed: but in moſt parts of England, the ſhop of a village-barber is very conſpicuous, from the author's "figure of Pallas" with which it is uſually decorated.

Having thus exhauſted the wonders produced by "the indolence and ſuperſtition" of the natives, Dr. T. proceeds:

> "The two trades I am next to deſcribe, are ſo different from every profeſſion to which European manners give riſe, that I beg leave to refer you to the authority upon which this narrative is grounded; for I here wiſh to diſclaim all reſponſibility, as well as merit, in giving the information they may afford." Vol. ii. p. 198.

If the author had beſtowed the leaſt attention to the manners and cuſtoms of Europe, he ſurely needed not to have ſhrunk from the reſponſibility of aſſerting, that in Indian villages he finds both table-mat-makers, and public ſingers; for theſe are the two profeſſions whoſe exiſtence is thus ſolemnly introduced. That the firſt, or *barhi*, is more common than in Europe, is ſolely owing to the cuſtom of the Hindoos, in the upper provinces, eating off mats made of leaves, inſtead of plates.

That the profeſſion of a *bhaut* is more honourable than that of a ballad-ſinger, or even than that of a pariſh-clerk, and requires

quires greater talents, is, in like manner, owing to peculiar cuſtoms, varying only in degree from thoſe of Europe. The religion of the Hindoo villages has undergone no change; hence, its officers retain their ancient rank. The religion of Europe has received ſeveral great and radical transformations. The bard of the Britons was undoubtedly the *bhaut* of the Hindoos; but, the edicts of the Roman emperors having annihilated their public functions, they ſunk into poverty, and were reduced to earn a precarious living by that part of their office which afforded amuſement to the vulgar, who are ever more tenacious of their cuſtoms than the ſuperior claſſes. The eſtabliſhment of Chriſtianity, by the ſevere manners it introduced, contributed to increaſe this ſeparation of the poetic part. The pariſh-clerk and ſchoolmaſter are the ſubſtitutes in England for the *bhaut*, ſo far as regards his official duties. The fondneſs of the Hindoos for poetry, and the great uſe made of it in the courtſhips and marriages even of the middling claſſes, and upon other occaſions, lead them frequently to apply to the *bhaut* for his aſſiſtance, not only in reſpect to the compoſition of the piece, but alſo in the recital or performance of it. Many reliques of the antient union of the poetic character, in all its branches, with that of the pariſh-clerk and ſchoolmaſter, may ſtill be traced in our cuſtoms.

The connection of the author with the army, has led him to interſperſe many anecdotes of the economy and diſcipline of the Britiſh army in India. The victories it has gained are grand and impoſing; yet the peruſal of this work would almoſt lead us to ſuppoſe, that they were as much owing to the weakneſs and diſſentions of the native powers, and the traitorous corruption of the enemies' commanders, as to the military diſcipline and activity of the Company's troops. Since our co-operation with the Turkiſh army, the military journals have been filled with accounts of the bad management of the Turkiſh forces, their ſlow motion, and the inconveniences of the great train of followers which they carry into the field, and which are often equal in number to the effective men. In the Britiſh army in India, we find, by Dr. Tennant's account, all theſe defects are ſtill greater. The ordinary march of the army takes place only in a morning, the baggage and followers being ſent before, to get the tents pitched, and breakfaſt ready for the troops when they arrive. The number of followers are immenſe; thoſe of Lord Cornwallis, in the march to Seringapatam, are computed to have been nearly half a million. The uſual field equipage of a ſubaltern is, a horſe, a camel, and fifteen ſervants; a ſoldier requires ſervants in proportion. Many of the officers, even

even ſubalterns, keep elephants for hunting, or to take the air in the evening. At the ſame time, the internal ſecurity of the quarters of the army is ſtated in ſuch a manner, that we muſt quote the author's own words:

"Even in our military cantonments an officer can by no means truſt the charge of his houſe to ſentinels; he is obliged to hire two or three chockidars, the only terms upon which he can hope for ſecurity; without this precaution, the thieves have attained to ſuch dexterity in their trade, that they can eaſily ſteal the pillow from under his head during the night." Vol. ii. p. 196.

"The boldneſs and numbers of theſe plunderers is hardly credible in the upper parts of India. Our camp-followers ſteal from each other, or are plundered by the robbers who daſh into the camp by night. As often as they are in danger of being detected, they accompany the theft by murder. We had this day the misfortune to have one of the horſes of the European cavalry drop into a well; the animal was drawn up unhurt; but the perſons employed in this work found three men at the bottom of the well who had been murdered the preceding night." Vol. ii. p. 368.

Such is the boaſted ſecurity that is yielded by the preſence of the Company's troops; whoſe protection, according to Dr. T.'s opinion, is the greateſt bleſſing the peaſants can enjoy. It is probable, however, that the natives are not of that opinion; for we are told by the author, that upon a journey it is neceſſary for Europeans to carry with them every article of proviſion, not from any ſcarcity that may be apprehended, but becauſe the village tradeſmen, if they get ſight of an European coming to purchaſe, ſhut up their ſhops and hide themſelves. This enigma is ſolved at laſt, by our being told (vol. ii. p. 200.) that to Europeans the price is fixed; ſheep, for example, three for a rupee, or about ten-pence each, which Dr. T. acknowledges is below the real value.

To ſerve as a foil to the munificence and proſperity of the Company's diſtricts, we are preſented with a view of thoſe of the Mahrattas, and of the Nawaub Vizier, upon which every epithet of contempt that could occur to the author ſeems to be beſtowed. The character for extortion of Almaſs Ali Khan, who collects the revenues accruing to the Nawaub Vizier from a diſtrict of 400 miles in extent, is repreſented in the worſt of colours. Truth, however, is ſometimes permitted, but reluctantly, to appear. His zemindary (manor) is confeſſed to be the beſt cultivated, and moſt populous, in the Nawaub's dominions. The public groves are managed with the greateſt care. His ſeat is built in a park, which was once a thicket infeſted with thieves, but which he has cleared away, and ſeveral new towns, regularly laid out and walled, have

have been built in his neighbourhood. An European manufactory of indigo, on the largeſt ſcale of any in India, is eſtabliſhed at the place of his ordinary reſidence. Theſe circumſtances do not well accord with the character of an imperious and avaricious landlord.

Perſons who ſeek for information, and are not diſguſted at the manner in which it is delivered, or at the attempt to make it ſubſervient to peculiar purpoſes, may undoubtedly find a certain portion of it in the preſent work. An index to it is however very much wanted.

Our copy is furniſhed with five plates; whether it is perfect in this reſpect we do not know, as they are not numbered, nor is there any mention of them in the body of the work. One of the plates repreſents a *tauntee* (weaver), another an *augree* (ploughman); neither of which terms are mentioned in the text.

ART. CXXVIII. *The Hiſtory of Canada, from its firſt Diſcovery; comprehending an Account of the original Eſtabliſhments of the Colony of Louiſiana. By George Heriot, Eſq., Deputy Poſt-Maſter General of Britiſh America.* 8vo. pp. 616. Price 12s. Longman and Rees. London. 1804.

THE volume before us, which is chiefly compiled from Charlevoix's Hiſtoire, contains only a part of the author's deſign, and traces the account of Canada from the firſt diſcovery to the year 1731. The hiſtory of Canada neceſſarily involves an account of the Iroquois, the powerful tribe which ſo long and ſo much annoyed the new colony. Notwithſtanding the diſtance between Canada and Louiſiana, various circumſtances connected the two provinces. Their firſt European poſſeſſors were the ſame. "The dioceſe of the Biſhop of Quebec" extended to the ſettlers of the latter, and the miſſionaries eſtabliſhed there were under his direction. The colony of the Illinois, which was originally attached to Canada, but afterwards added to Louiſiana, had a direct communication with New Orleans, by means of the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, and contributed towards the ſupport of that ſettlement. The hiſtory of the eſtabliſhment of Louiſiana is, therefore, not improperly included in that of Canada."

The volume is divided into eleven books. The firſt contains the diſcovery of Canada. In 1534, Jacques Cartier arrived in the Iſland of Newfoundland; but leaving that coaſt, he entered into a bay of conſiderable extent (the Gulph of St. Lawrence), where, ſome years before, the Spaniards having landed, and finding

finding no mines, were ſaid to have pronounced repeatedly the words "*Aca Nada,*"—"Here is nothing." Some of the ſavages, uſing theſe words to the French; that circumſtance led them at firſt to imagine that *Canada* was the name which the natives gave to the country. Cartier took poſſeſſion of that part which adjoins the river in its approach to the ſea. Succeeding voyagers ſailed farther up the St. Lawrence, commanded or directed by Cartier, and a garriſon was eſtabliſhed in theſe new territories of France. During the latter part of the ſixteenth century, France being torn by civil wars, there was little leiſure or inclination for adventures of navigation and diſcovery; but the re-eſtabliſhment of tranquillity under Henry IV. ſuffered the nautical ſpirit to revive. In 1598, Pontgrave, an expert navigator, undertook a voyage to Canada, with an intention of eſtabliſhing a traffic in furs; and finding out a commodious place for a commercial ſettlement, this voyage was ſucceſsful. He was joined by Champlain; they procured a patent for a commercial aſſociation, and, after exploring various parts of the country, they pitched on the promontory of Quebec as the moſt advantageous ſpot for the foundation of the new colony. In 1608, Pontgrave erected ſome huts at that place for himſelf and his people, and they began to clear the woods. Champlain engaged in his intereſts ſeveral tribes of Indians, who, having been greatly oppreſſed by the Iroquois, gladly co-operated with the French againſt thoſe Indians, as common enemies. The confederates were ſucceſsful chiefly by means of the fire-arms of the French. The colony being now firmly eſtabliſhed, Champlain beſtowed on Canada the appellation of New France. Though defeated, the Iroquois were not ſubdued, and wars were long carried on between the new comers and theſe aboriginal inhabitants. For ſeveral years the French received little aſſiſtance from the mother country; but the policy of Cardinal Richlieu adopted meaſures for the permanent ſupport of a colony which, he foreſaw, if judiciouſly managed, would prove extremely beneficial to France. He veſted the commercial and political direction of Canada in an hundred aſſociates, who, from ſituation and talents, were ſuppoſed moſt competent to the accompliſhment of his purpoſe. This aſſociation was termed the Company of New France.

The ſecond book is chiefly occupied by the deſultory wars between the French and the ſavages. The French clergy were extremely anxious to diffuſe eccleſiaſtical influence over New France; eſpecially that enterprizing fraternity, the Jeſuits, who ſoon acquired conſiderable authority in the colony. A biſhop arrived from France, and a new ſeminary was erected.

The prelate procured an order for the eſtabliſhment of tithes to be paid to the clergy; but the people regarded ſuch an impoſt, in the infant ſtate of the colony, as not only oppreſſive but intolerable; and an application was made to Louis XIV. to take the colony under his own protection. About this time the Engliſh began to make ſeveral ſettlements at no great diſtance from New France.

The third book opens with a picture of the feebleneſs and languor of the colony. The aſſociates ſurrendered their charter to the ſovereign in 1664, and Louis placed New France under the direction of the Company of the Weſt Indies. The French government now ſeemed determined to maintain the colony, and ſent troops and other ſupplies to Canada. The coloniſts, with their Indian auxiliaries, were more ſucceſsful againſt the Iroquois than they had been of late years. Still, however, they complained very heavily of the grievance of tithes, which had not been effectually remedied. Canada was now divided into two governments, Quebec and Montreal, in the lower and upper parts of the country; but Quebec was the chief government. In 1672, the Count de Frontenac arrived as governor of Quebec; and having the inquiſitive ſpirit incident to genius, he was very anxious to learn the ſtate and nature of the country beyond the preſent bounds of New France. He employed Father Marquette, who had been engaged as a miſſionary, to explore the country until he ſhould reach the great river of which they had received ſome information, ſince known by the name of the Miſſiſſippi. The clergyman ſet out on this project, accompanied by a Quebec merchant; and on the 17th of June (1672) they diſcovered that celebrated river, and ſatisfactorily aſcertained that it diſcharged itſelf into the Gulph of Mexico. But, Frontenac proving violent and imperious, great diſſenſions took place at Quebec; and the French did not immediately avail themſelves of the diſcovery. In 1676, M. de la Sale, a man of talents and enterprize, propoſed farther to inveſtigate the great Weſtern river. With that view, he applied to the French marine miniſter Colbert; and in 1678 ſet out with ſuch attendants as he thought neceſſary. He endeavoured to gain over the Illinois, who occupied the country between Canada and the Miſſiſſippi; and more than a year was employed in the undertaking. The Iroquois ſavages renewing the war, La Sale found it neceſſary to fortify himſelf and his party, and to continue ſtationary; and in 1682, he took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of his king, and ſailing down the Miſſiſſippi, diſcovered its mouth in the Gulph of Mexico.

The

The fourth book includes a view of the fur trade between the Indians and the Europeans: thence our author proceeds to the affairs of the clergy and the law. This part of the work enlarges more particularly on the manners of the Indian tribes; from which we ſhould quote ſome paſſages, but that the manners of the American ſavages are no longer new to our readers. We do not, however, blame the writer for introducing theſe into his narrative; as, for the ſake of connection, an hiſtorian muſt often repeat facts that are well known. There were now eſtabliſhed in Canada, regular courts for the adminiſtration of juſtice; theſe, followed by the very great benefit of ſecuring property and puniſhing crimes, were not without drawing with them the evil of litigation, which government endeavoured to prevent, and the lawyers as anxiouſly and more ſeduloufly to promote. The fourth book cloſes with the pacification of the Iroquois, and an account of a ſavage chief, who, for ſome reaſon not mentioned, was ſtyled the Rat.

From the fifth book we find, that the French had to contend with a much more formidable enemy in thoſe regions than Indian ſavages. England reſumed her ſtation among the powers of Europe, and the chief object of William was, to humble the imperious ambition of France. Conteſts with this European foe in the American ſeas abſtracted the attention of the French from the movements of the barbarians. The Indians, acquainted with this circumſtance, made an inroad into Montreal, and deſolated the whole iſland. This ſucceſs encouraged them to various other incurſions, and in 1690 the upper part of Canada was very greatly diſtreſſed; on the other ſide, the Engliſh captured all the fortified places in Acadia and Newfoundland; and they found means to afford aſſiſtance by land to the Iroquois; but a new governor-general arriving, more conciliatory than Frontenac, found means to incline the Indians to peace. The negotiations for a treaty, with ſome hoſtilities that were ſtill carried on while theſe were pending, occupy the ſixth book. The ſeventh proceeds with the treaty, which terminates in a general peace concluded at Montreal; and the remainder contains an account of the war between England and France in thoſe regions, until the peace of Rhyſwick afforded an intermiſſion to hoſtilities. It alſo includes the commencement of the ſucceſſion war, as far as relates to Canada and the environs.

The eighth book goes on with the hiſtory of the war in that quarter of the world; but as the combatants were now the Engliſh and French, and their conteſts in America are comparatively of very ſmall intereſt to readers of that period of hiſtory,

hiſtory, it is unneceſſary to analyſe this part of the narrative. The treaty of Utrecht put an end to hoſtilities. This chapter alſo contains the military and political conduct of the ſavages who were become allies of France. After the peace, the French turned their attention to the Miſſiſſippi and the country around it, which was denominated Louiſiana, in honour of the French king. This portion of his work induces our author to revert to that period at which he had left M. De La Sale.

Having diſcovered the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, by ſailing down the river, he next propoſed to find it by ſea; and, in 1684, ſailed from Rochelle for that purpoſe. Having ſtopped ſome time at St. Domingo to refreſh, he proceeded in queſt of the Miſſiſſippi: but the enterpriſe totally miſcarried.

In 1699, M. D'Iberville undertook a voyage for the ſame purpoſe, and was ſucceſsful. He ſailed up the river, and formed the deſign of ſettling a colony on its banks. He eſtabliſhed alſo an intercourſe with the Illinois and various other nations in the vicinity. The king, informed of the new diſcovery, ſent miſſionaries to the Illinois, to convert them to Chriſtianity. As D'Iberville advanced up the river, he came to the tribe of the Natchez, whoſe manners and cuſtoms, equally barbarous, appeared different from the manners and cuſtoms either of the Indians of more northern America, as deſcribed by Charlevoix and others; or of the Mexicans and Peruvians, as exhibited by many writers, but eſpecially by Robertſon. Near the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, the French voyagers conſtructed a fort and made diſpoſitions for a ſettlement. Theſe tranſactions occupy the tenth book.

The eleventh, and laſt, contains a commercial and political view of Louiſiana. The French expected that this newly-diſcovered country, like Mexico, would afford great quantities of the precious metals. Under this impreſſion, adventurers flocked from France to Louiſiana; and "there iſſued," (ſays our author,) "in leſs than three years, from the kingdom, more men, money, and effects, to form an eſtabliſhment in this part of America, than had gone from France ſince the time of Francis the Firſt, for any of the colonies in the New World. But when it was aſcertained that the country produced neither gold nor ſilver, and that it was not without induſtry that riches could be made to flow from thence, it ſuddenly fell into general diſcredit: no regard was paid either to the fertility of the ſoil, or to the productions, which, with a ſmall degree of labour, it could furniſh; or to the importance of having a cruiſing-ground in the Gulph of Mexico. The treaſures which were brought thither from France diſappeared;

peared; the coloniſts either periſhed through miſery, although they might have procured the means of living in opulence, or diſperſed themſelves into different quarters." Louiſiana was not regularly eſtabliſhed as a colony until the year 1708, when M. Diron d'Artagnette arrived as governor of the colony, and endeavoured to excite a ſpirit of induſtry and promote the cultivation of lands. St. Denys, brother to the governor, was ſent by land to New Mexico, to endeavour to open a commerce with the Spaniards; but the governor, inſtead of attending to his propoſals, committed him to priſon, where he remained for three months; he was afterwards liberated, but did not ſucceed in the object of his miſſion. Meanwhile the Natchez formed a conſpiracy againſt the French colony, but they were ſpeedily reduced to ſurrender at diſcretion. Notwithſtanding this victory, the colony ſtill continued in a very feeble ſtate. Crozat, who had received an excluſive privilege of trade to and from the new ſettlement, found it ſo little beneficial, that he ſurrendered it to the king. He nevertheleſs repreſented that Louiſiana might be rendered of the higheſt benefit to the commerce and navy of France. About this time there ſeemed to prevail in Europe a ſympathetic propenſity to wild ſchemes of avarice; and immenſe riches were repreſented as about to flow from ſources that never before had afforded any, and were not, in moral probability, likely to afford great wealth now. Among theſe was the idea of the celebrated Mr. Law, that the banks of the Miſſiſſippi contained treaſures unrivalled in the univerſe. An aſſociation was formed, called the Company of the Weſt, for taking poſſeſſion of thoſe hoards; extravagant prices were paid for ſhares in the copartnerſhip; and the public of France were as completely duped by the project of Mr. Law, as, a few years afterwards, the public of England were by the South-Sea ſcheme.

The native Indians, more ſubtle than the ſavages in the north, and equally ferocious, formed a conſpiracy againſt the French; and, in different parts of the ſettlement, they maſſacred two hundred men almoſt at the ſame inſtant. The few Frenchmen who eſcaped, hid themſelves in the woods. Intelligence of this plot, which was executed in 1729, was immediately ſent from the neighbouring ſettlement of New Orleans to the court of France, and Mr. Perrier, governor of that ſettlement, took meaſures to develop the object and extent of the conſpiracy, and prevent its farther progreſs. He would have waited for freſh ſupplies of troops from the mother country, but it was repreſented to him, by perſons well acquainted with the ſavages, that ſucceſs would in a great

meaſure depend on diſpatch. Accordingly he ſent a commander and troops againſt the Indians, who, for ſeveral months, maintained a deſultory war, but which daily became more hopeleſs to theſe barbarians. In the year 1730, ſeveral tribes were cruſhed; but the Natchez continued to eſcape. In 1731, freſh troops having arrived from Europe, Perrier himſelf took the field againſt the Natchez. The French general ſurpriſed a large party of them in a fort, which he ſurrounded and captured: he ſent the chief priſoners to St. Domingo, to be ſold for ſlaves, and, among them the ruler of the tribe, to whom they gave the name of the Sun, as the repreſentative of the great luminary, which they, in common with many other tribes, regard as the ſupreme governor of the univerſe. The Natchez were not ſubdued by this diſaſter; and being greatly enraged againſt the nation which had doomed their prince to ſlavery, they again made head againſt the French; and though now not ſufficiently powerful to endanger the exiſtence of the colony, they were ſtrong and active enough to diſturb its tranquillity and interrupt its commerce. Meanwhile the advances of the French near the banks of the Miſſiſſippi alarmed other tribes of Indians, eſpecially the Chicachas, between whom and the Europeans a war was excited, which laſted for many years; but with its commencement the volume cloſes.

Such are the moſt important facts which this narrative contains; and they are communicated in a natural, eaſy, and agreeable ſtyle. They are however more intereſting to French than either to general or Britiſh readers. As a hiſtory of Canada, profeſſedly intended for the peruſal of Engliſhmen, the writer might have acted more judiciouſly if he had entered much leſs into the detail of the French contentions with ſavages, compreſſed his narrative of the early tranſactions of the province, and haſtened to that period when it becomes intereſting and important to this country. When an hiſtorian publiſhes a ſingle volume as a part of a larger performance, he ought to cloſe with ſome material event or epoch. The *beginning* of a war between the French of Louiſiana and a tribe of Indian ſavages, is not a grand hiſtorical epoch even to French readers, much leſs to others. The firſt very ſtriking period in the hiſtory of Canada is the victory of General Wolfe, which led to the capture of Quebec, and the conqueſt of the province. This would have been a reſting-place, very pleaſing and impreſſive to a Britiſh reader; and the work would not have been the leſs intereſting and forcible from a compreſſion that might have included that period. But though we think the author too prolix in his account

account of tranſactions by no means intereſting to the readers for whom he writes, we find the reaſon of that prolixity in the authorities which he has chiefly followed. It muſt however be admitted, that he poſſeſſes ſeveral requiſites of an uſeful hiſtorian. He is induſtrious, faithful, and perſpicuous; and has ſpared no pains to acquire ſuch information as tended to illuſtrate his theme. With his narrative are occaſionally mixed commercial and political obſervations, which, without proving him to have dived very deep into political economy, or into human nature, are ſenſible and pertinent. His views of ſavage manners and inſtitutions are neither new nor profound, but they are nevertheleſs juſt exhibitions, as far as they reach. Adhering cloſely to chronological order, his arrangement is clear and obvious.

Elegance, depth, and comprehenſiveneſs, the work certainly does not poſſeſs; and it perhaps leſs deſerves the name of hiſtory, than of a collection of materials from which, if properly digeſted and compreſſed, a hiſtory might be formed. As an induſtrious and ample compilation of facts, many of which are worthy of being known, the performance is uſeful and laudable; and, in allowing to it this ſecondary ſpecies of hiſtorical merit, we are convinced that we beſtow as much as the modeſty of the author can require, or his good ſenſe can expect. We doubt not, however, but the judgment which this eſſay diſcovers, when more matured in compoſitions of the kind, will more accurately apportion the length of the narrative to the importance and intereſt of the ſubject.

CXXIX. *The Works of the Right Honourable Lady Mary Wortley Montagu; including her Correſpondence, Poems, and Eſſays. Publiſhed, by permiſſion, from her genuine Papers.* In five Volumes. pp. 1254; price 1*l.* 5*s.* Phillips. London, 1804.

DELIGHTFUL indeed would be the employment of a literary cenſor, if his opinion were never called forth by any publications but ſuch as reſemble the preſent in ſome, at leaſt, of its various and uncommon merits. The fame of this fair writer was eſtabliſhed by the letters which had already been preſented to the public. The additional matter in the preſent volumes fully confirms her title to the very firſt place in this ſpecies of compoſition. Her obſervations are not only marked with thorough good ſenſe, but her ſubjects are ſo diverſified, and yet are all treated in ſo proper a manner, that a reader can hardly fail to be faſcinated while he is inſtructed.

Here then is provided not only an intellectual regale for our readers, but a moſt delightful relaxation for ourſelves. Where all is excellent, we are ſcarcely called upon to exerciſe the powers of diſcrimination; ſtill leſs are we rouſed to the painful taſk of expreſſing diſapprobation. If the juſtice of our encomiums could poſſibly be diſputed, the ſubject of them has nought to dread from the baleful attacks of envy. She has been long ſince deaf to the melody of praiſe, or the grating diſcord of cenſure. We reſpectfully hail her departed ſpirit; and can only expreſs our thanks for the gratification afforded us by a wiſh of PEACE TO HER MANES!

As a ſpecimen of the obligations which the Marquis of Bute has conferred on the literary world in permitting theſe letters to be publiſhed, we extract the following reflections from a letter to the famous Dr. Burnet, accompanying a tranſlation of Epictetus. If we take into account the Lady's age, ſcarcely twenty, her high rank, and the very bad education which, as appears from various parts of her letters, young women of quality received at that time, it muſt be conſidered as a very extraordinary production.

"My ſex is uſually forbid ſtudies of this nature, and folly reckoned ſo much our proper ſphere, that we are ſooner pardoned any exceſſes of that, than the leaſt pretenſions to reading or good ſenſe. We are permitted no books but ſuch as tend to the weakening and effeminating of the mind. Our natural defects are every way indulged, and it is looked upon as in a degree criminal to improve our reaſon, or fancy we have any. We are taught to place all our art in adorning our outward forms, and permitted, without reproach, to carry that cuſtom even to extravagancy; while our minds are entirely neglected, and, by diſuſe of reflections, filled with nothing but the trifling objects our eyes are daily entertained with. This cuſtom, ſo long eſtabliſhed and ſo induſtriouſly upheld, makes it even ridiculous to go out of the common road, and forces one to find as many excuſes as if it were a thing altogether criminal not to play the fool in concert with other women of quality, whoſe birth and leiſure only ſerve to render them the moſt uſeleſs and moſt worthleſs part of the creation. There is hardly a character in the world more deſpicable, or more liable to univerſal ridicule, than that of a learned woman; thoſe words imply, according to the received ſenſe, a talking, impertinent, vain, and conceited creature. I believe nobody will deny that learning may have this effect, but it muſt be a very ſuperficial degree of it. Eraſmus was certainly a man of great learning and good ſenſe, and he ſeems to have my opinion of it, when he ſays, *fœmina quæ vere ſapit, non videtur ſibi ſapere; contra, quæ cum nihil ſapiat ſibi videtur ſapere, ea demum bis ſtulta eſt.*

"The Abbè Bellegarde gives a right reaſon for women's talking over-much; that they know nothing, and every outward object ſtrikes

ſtrikes their imagination, and produces a multitude of thoughts, which, if they knew more, they would know not worth their thinking of. I am not now arguing for an equality of the two ſexes. I do not doubt but that God and nature have thrown us into an inferior rank; we are a lower part of the creation, we owe obedience and ſubmiſſion to the ſuperior ſex, and any woman who ſuffers her vanity and folly to deny this, rebels againſt the law of the Creator, and indiſputable order of nature; but there is a worſe effect than this, which follows the careleſs education given to women of quality, its being ſo eaſy for any man of ſenſe, that finds it either his intereſt or his pleaſure, to corrupt them. The common method is, to begin by attacking their religion; they bring them a thouſand fallacious arguments, which their exceſſive ignorance hinders them from refuting; and I ſpeak now from my own knowledge and converſation among them, there are more atheiſts among the fine ladies than the looſeſt ſort of rakes; and the ſame ignorance that generally works out into exceſs of ſuperſtition, expoſes them to the ſnares of any one who have a fancy to carry them to t'other extreme." Vol. i. p. 135.

The letters that paſſed between Mr. Wortley and herſelf, before marriage, are highly curious; and it is the only part of the volume which we could not peruſe without ſome mixture of pain. They certainly appear to be the forerunners of a mutual diſappointment. So far as we can judge from the documents before us, (for it is not to be ſuppoſed that every letter is regularly printed with its reply,) Lady Mary, having been brought up in retirement, had ſeen but few men, and was prepoſſeſſed in favour of Mr. W. by her partiality for his mother*, who was evidently anxious that the connection ſhould take place. She was moreover ſomewhat piqued at the marks of indifference which ſhe obſerved in him, over which ſhe might, almoſt inſenſibly to herſelf, be determined to triumph. He appears to have been of a cold and reſerved temper, urged on to the purſuit by his mother's wiſhes, as well as by the almoſt irreſiſtible attractions of Lady M.—Yet perceiving the effect which her charms of perſon, as well as underſtanding, muſt have upon others when they became more generally known, he was apprehenſive that her head might be turned giddy by general admiration, and inſtead of the undivided

* We ſpeak doubtfully upon this point, for the editor's text and note vary. The former making Mrs. Wortley the mother, the latter repreſenting her as the ſiſter of Mr. W. As Mr. Dallaway aſſigns no reaſon for the alteration of his opinion, we muſt form one for ourſelves; and we own, from the ſtyle of the letters written by that Lady, we conſider her as Lady M.'s ſenior, and conſequently the mother of her friend's future huſband.

divided poſſeſſion of her thoughts, he might have to ſhare them with faſhionable wits or frivolous coxcombs.

Certain it is, that after marriage there do not exiſt very ſtrong marks of affection or endearment: and her long reſidence abroad during his life-time, ſeems to ſhew that her feelings toward him were thoſe of reſpect and eſteem, rather than love. Upon this ſubject we are reduced to conjecture, rather than ſupported by proof; for the Memoirs of her Life afford no clue to the eſtrangement which ſeems to have taken place between them; nor is any direct explanation given of it in the Letters. This circumſtance, and the reflections which it is unavoidably calculated to excite, certainly preſent an inſtructive leſſon upon one of the moſt important ſubjects to which the human choice can be directed; and we truſt this part will not be peruſed without intereſt or improvement.

Another curious part of the correſpondence, now firſt publiſhed, relates to the intimacy which once ſubſiſted between the fair writer and Pope. Upon this part ſome ſatisfactory light is thrown by the editor, in his introductory Memoirs, and we think with him, that Pope cannot be exculpated from the charge of flagrant diſengenouſneſs in his conduct to Lady Mary after the quarrel. From theſe topics (which, though highly intereſting, nevertheleſs extort a ſigh for poor human nature), let us paſs to the concluding parts of the volumes, and ſhew our readers what they may expect from the productions of a mind like Lady Mary's, who enjoyed advantages of obſervation and reflection which rarely fall to the lot of any individual. Poſſeſſed of an ardent ſenſibility, and a penetrating judgment, ſhe early indulged a fondneſs for reading. By long intercourſe with the world in various climes, ſhe acquired an extenſive and diſcriminating view of human nature; and at length in a delightful and cheering ſolitude, ſhe had leiſure to pour forth the rich and accumulated fruits of the knowledge derived from books, from mankind, and from years. What more can we ſay to tempt the literary epicure to partake of "this feaſt of reaſon and this flow of ſoul?" Exhortation, we are perſuaded, muſt be unneceſſary, if we furniſh him with copious ſpecimens of the intellectual banquet; and thus convince him irrefragably that we have not over-rated the flavour of the viands, nor the judgment and elegance with which the feaſt is compounded.

"To the Counteſs of Bute.

"Dear child, "Breſcia, Jan. 5, 1747-8.

"I am glad to hear that yourſelf and family are in good health; and as to the alteration you find in the world, it is owing to your being better acquainted with it.

"I have never in all my various travels ſeen but two ſorts of people, and thoſe very like one another; I mean men and women, who always have been, and ever will be the ſame. The ſame vices and the ſame follies have been the fruit of all ages, though ſometimes under different names. I remember, when I returned from Turkey, meeting with the ſame affectation of youth among yours, and I do not doubt but your daughter will find the ſame, twenty years hence, among hers. One of the greateſt happineſſes of youth is the ignorance of evil, though it is often the ground of great indiſcretions, and ſometimes the active part of life is over before an honeſt mind finds out how one ought to act in ſuch a world as this. I am as much removed from it as it is poſſible to be on this ſide the grave, which is from my own inclination, for I might have even here a great deal of company; the way of living in this province being, I believe, what it is in the ſociable part of Scotland, and was in England a hundred years ago. I had a viſit in the holidays of thirty horſe of ladies and gentlemen, with their ſervants (by the way the ladies all ride like the late ducheſs of Cleveland). They came with the kind intent of ſtaying with me at leaſt a fortnight, though I had never ſeen any of them before; but they were all neighbours within ten miles round. I could not avoid entertaining them at ſupper, and by good luck had a large quantity of game in the houſe, which with the help of my poultry, furniſhed out a plentiful table. I ſent for the fiddles, and they were ſo obliging as to dance all night, and even dine with me the next day, though none of them had been in bed; and were much diſappointed I did not aſk them to ſtay, it being the faſhion to go in troops to one another's houſes, hunting and dancing together a month in each caſtle. I have not yet returned any of their viſits, and I do not intend it for ſome time, to avoid this expenſive hoſpitality. The trouble of it is not very great, they not expecting any ceremony. I left the room about one o'clock, and they continued their ball in the ſaloon above ſtairs, without being at all offended at my departure. But the greateſt diverſion I had, was to ſee a lady of my own age, comfortably dancing with her own huſband, ſome years older; and I can aſſert, that ſhe jumped and galloped with the beſt of them.

"May you be as well ſatisfied with your family as you are at preſent, and your children return in your age the tender care you have taken of their infancy. I know no greater happineſs that can be wiſhed for you, by your moſt affectionate mother." Vol. iv. p. 25.

"I pity poor Lady D——, who perhaps thinks herſelf at preſent an object of envy: ſhe will be ſoon undeceived: no rich widow can marry on prudential motives; and where paſſion is only on one ſide, every marriage muſt be miſerable. If ſhe thought juſtly, ſhe would know that no man ever was in love with a woman of forty ſince the deluge: a boy may be ſo; but that blaze of ſtraw only laſts till he is old enough to diſtinguiſh between youth

and age, which generally happens about ſeventeen; till that time the whole ſex appears angelic to a warm conſtitution; but as that is not Mr. T—'s caſe, all ſhe can hope is a cold complaiſance, founded on gratitude, which is the moſt uncertain of all foundations for a laſting union. I know not how it is, whether obligers are apt to exact too large returns, or whether human pride naturally hates to remember obligation, but I have ſeldom ſeen friendſhips continue long where there have been great benefits conferred; and I ſhould think it the ſevereſt ſuffering to know I was a burthen on the good nature of a man I loved, even if I met a mind ſo generous as to diſſemble a diſguſt which he could not help feeling. Lady D— had fond parents, and, as I have heard, an obliging huſband. Her ſorrowful hours are now coming on: they will be new to her, and 'tis a cruel addition to reflect (as ſhe muſt do) that they have been of her own purchaſing." P. 92.

"To the Counteſs of Bute.

"My dear child, "Louvere, Jan. 10, 1752.

"I am extremely concerned to hear you complain of ill health, at a time of life when you ought to be in the flower of your ſtrength. I hope I need not recommend to you the care of it: the tenderneſs you have for your children is ſufficient to enforce you to the utmoſt regard for the preſervation of a life ſo neceſſary to their well being. I do not doubt your prudence in their education; neither can I ſay any thing particular relating to it at this diſtance, different tempers requiring different management. In general, never attempt to govern them (as moſt people do) by deceit: if they find themſelves cheated, even in trifles, it will ſo far leſſen the authority of their inſtructor, as to make them neglect all their future admonitions: and, if poſſible, breed them free from prejudices; thoſe contracted in the nurſery, often influence the whole life after, of which I have ſeen many melancholy examples. I ſhall ſay no more of this ſubject, nor would have ſaid this little, if you had not aſked my advice: 'tis much eaſier to give rules than to practiſe them. I am ſenſible my own natural temper is too indulgent: I think it the leaſt dangerous error; yet ſtill it is an error. I can only ſay with truth, that I do not know in my whole life having ever endeavoured to impoſe on you, or give a falſe colour to any thing that I repreſented to you. If your daughters are inclined to love reading, do not check their inclination by hindering them of the diverting part of it; it is as neceſſary for the amuſement of women as the reputation of men: but teach them not to expect or deſire any applauſe from it. Let their brothers ſhine, and let them content themſelves with making their lives eaſier by it, which I experimentally know is more effectually done by ſtudy than any other way. Ignorance is as much the fountain of vice as idleneſs, and indeed generally produces it. People that do not read or work for a livelihood have many hours they know not how to employ,

ploy, eſpecially women, who commonly fall into vapours, or ſomething worſe. I am afraid you will think this letter very tedious: forgive it as coming from your moſt affectionate mother,

M. W."——(p. 112.)

—" Let me beg of you not to indulge an uſeleſs grief to the prejudice of your health, which is ſo neceſſary to your family. Every thing may turn out better than you expect. We ſee ſo darkly into futurity, we never know when we have real cauſe to rejoice or lament. The worſt appearances have often happy conſequences, as the beſt lead many times into the greateſt misfortunes. Human prudence is very ſtraitly bounded. What is moſt in our power, though little ſo, is the diſpoſition of our own minds. Do not give way to melancholy; ſeek amuſements; be willing to be diverted, and inſenſibly you will become ſo. Weak people only place a merit in affliction. A grateful remembrance, and whatever honour we can pay to their memory, is all that is owing to the dead. Tears and ſorrow are no duties to them, and make us incapable of thoſe we owe to the living.

I give you thanks for your care of my books. I yet retain, and carefully cheriſh my taſte for reading. If relays of eyes were to be hired like poſt-horſes, I would never admit any but ſilent companions: they afford a conſtant variety of entertainment, and is almoſt the only one pleaſing in the enjoyment, and inoffenſive in the conſequence. I am ſorry your ſight will not permit you a great uſe of it: the prattle of your little ones, and friendſhip of Lord Bute, will ſupply the place of it. My dear child, endeavour to raiſe your ſpirits, and believe this advice comes from the tenderneſs of your moſt affectionate mother,

M. Wortley."——(p. 141.)

Lady Mary's notions upon the ſubject of education are often admirable, and ſtill more ſo if we take into conſideration the time when ſhe wrote, when many errors and prejudices, now acknowledged to be ſuch, were admitted into the practice of teaching. No mother can read without intereſt ſome obſervations in the third volume from page 155 to 176. They are too long for inſertion; and a partial extract would be an act of injuſtice. The picture of her mode of life, in her ſolitude at Louvere, is inimitable:

" I have been theſe ſix weeks, and ſtill am, at my dairy-houſe, which joins to my garden. I believe I have already told you it is a long mile from the caſtle, which is ſituate in the midſt of a very large village, once a conſiderable town, part of the walls ſtill remaining, and has not vacant ground enough about it to make a garden, which is my greateſt amuſement, it being now troubleſome to walk, or even to go in the chaiſe till the evening. I have fitted up in this farm-houſe a room for myſelf, that is to ſay, ſtrewed the floor with ruſhes, covered the chimney with moſs and branches, and adorned the room with baſons of earthen ware, (which

(which is made here to great perfection) filled with flowers, and put in ſome ſtraw chairs and a couch bed, which is my whole furniture. This ſpot of ground is ſo beautiful, I am afraid you will ſcarce credit the deſcription, which, however, I can aſſure you, ſhall be very literal, without any embelliſhment from imagination. It is on a bank, forming a kind of peninſula, raiſed from the river Oglio fifty feet, to which you may deſcend by eaſy ſtairs cut in the turf, and either take the air on the river, which is as large as the Thames at Richmond, or by walking an avenue two hundred yards on the ſide of it, you find a wood of a hundred acres, which was already cut into walks and ridings when I took it. I have only added fifteen bowers in different views, with ſeats of turf. They were eaſily made, here being a large quantity of underwood, and a great number of wild vines, which twiſt to the top of the higheſt trees, and from which they make a very good ſort of wine they call bruſco. I am now writing to you in one of theſe arbours, which is ſo thick ſhaded, the ſun is not troubleſome even at noon. Another is on the ſide of the river, where I have made a camp kitchen, that I may take the fiſh, dreſs, and eat them immediately, and at the ſame time ſee the barks, which aſcend or deſcend every day to or from Mantua, Guaſtalla, or Pont de Vie, all conſiderable towns. This little wood is carpeted, in their ſucceeding ſeaſons, with violets and ſtrawberries, inhabited by a nation of nightingales, and filled with game of all kinds, excepting deer and wild boar, the firſt being unknown here, and not being large enough for the other.

"My garden was a plain vineyard when it came into my hands not two years ago, and it is, with a ſmall expence, turned into a garden that (apart from the advantage of the climate) I like better than that of Kenſington. The Italian vineyards are not planted like thoſe in France, but in clumps, faſtened to trees planted in equal ranks (commonly fruit trees), and continued in feſtoons from one to another, which I have turned into covered galleries of ſhade, that I can walk in the heat without being incommoded by it. I have made a dining-room of verdure, capable of holding a table of twenty covers; the whole ground is three hundred and ſeventeen feet in length, and two hundred in breadth. You ſee it is far from large; but ſo prettily diſpoſed, (though I ſay it,) that I never ſaw a more agreeable ruſtic garden, abounding with all ſorts of fruit, and producing a variety of wines. I would ſend you a pipe, if I did not fear the cuſtoms would make you pay too dear for it. I believe my deſcription gives you but an imperfect idea of my garden. Perhaps I ſhall ſucceed better in deſcribing my manner of life; which is as regular as that of any monaſtery. I generally riſe at ſix, and as ſoon as I have breakfaſted, put myſelf at the head of my needlewomen, and work with them till nine. I then inſpect my dairy, and take a turn among my poultry, which is a very large inquiry. I have at preſent two hundred chickens, beſides turkies, geeſe, ducks, and peacocks. All things have hitherto proſpered under my care; my bees and ſilkworms are doubled, and I am told that, without accidents, my capital will be ſo in two years time.

At

At eleven o'clock I retire to my books; I dare not indulge myſelf in that pleaſure above an hour. At twelve I conſtantly dine, and ſleep after dinner till about three: I then ſend for ſome of my old prieſts, and either play at piquet or whiſt, till 'tis cool enough to go out. One evening I walk in my wood, where I often ſup; take the air on horſeback the next; and go on the water the third. The fiſhery of this part of the river belongs to me; and my fiſherman's little boat (to which I have a green luteſtring awning), ſerves me for a barge. He and his ſon are my rowers, without any expence, he being very well paid by the profit of the fiſh, which I give him on condition of having every day one diſh for my table. Here is plenty of every ſort of freſh-water fiſh (excepting ſalmon); but we have a large trout ſo like it, that I, who have almoſt forgot the taſte, do not diſtinguiſh it.

"We are both placed properly in regard to our different times of life: you, amidſt the fair, the gallant, and the gay; I, in a retreat, where I enjoy every amuſement that ſolitude can afford. I confeſs I ſometimes wiſh for a little converſation; but I reflect that the commerce of the world gives more uneaſineſs than pleaſure; and quiet is all the hope that can reaſonably be indulged at my age. My letter is of an unconſcionable length; I ſhould aſk your pardon for it, but I had a mind to give you an idea of my mode of paſſing my time: take it as an inſtance of the affection of,

"&c. &c."——(p. 187.)

We are not afraid of tiring our readers with extracts from ſuch a work as this, but we muſt, however reluctantly, call to mind that other authors expect a ſhare of our attention; we will therefore only indulge in one quotation more:

. . . . . "I inquired after my old acquaintance, Sir Charles Williams, who, I hear, is much broken, both in ſpirits and conſtitution. How happy might that man have been if there had been added to his natural and acquired endowments a daſh of morality! If he had known how to diſtinguiſh between falſe and true felicity, and, inſtead of ſeeking to increaſe an eſtate already too large, and hunting after pleaſures that have made him rotten and ridiculous, he had bounded his deſires of wealth, and followed the dictates of his conſcience. His ſervile ambition has gained him two yards of red ribbon, and an exile into a miſerable country, where there is no ſociety, and ſo little taſte that I believe he ſuffers under a dearth of flatterers. This is ſaid for the uſe of your growing ſons, whom, I hope, no golden temptations will induce to marry women they cannot love, or comply with meaſures they cannot approve. All the happineſs this world can afford is more within reach than is generally ſuppoſed. Whoever ſeeks pleaſure will undoubtedly find pain; whoever will purſue eaſe will as certainly find pleaſures. The world's eſteem is the higheſt gratification of human vanity; and that is more eaſily obtained in a moderate fortune than in an overgrown

overgrown one, which is ſeldom poſſeſſed, never gained, without envy. I ſay eſteem; for as to applauſe, it is a youthful purſuit, never to be forgiven after twenty, and naturally ſucceeds the childiſh deſire of catching the ſetting ſun, which I can remember running very hard to do; a fine thing truly, if it could be caught; but experience ſoon ſhews it to be impoſſible. A wiſe and honeſt man lives to his own heart, without that ſilly ſplendour that makes him a prey to knaves, and which commonly ends in his becoming one of the fraternity. I am very glad to hear Lord Bute's decent economy ſets him above any thing of that kind. I wiſh it may become national. A collective body of men differs very little from a ſingle man; and frugality is the foundation of generoſity. I have often been complimented on the Engliſh heroiſm, who have thrown away ſo many millions, without any proſpect of advantage to themſelves, purely to ſuccour a diſtreſſed princeſs. I never could hear theſe praiſes without ſome impatience; they ſounded to me like the panegyrics made by the dependents on the Duke of Newcaſtle and poor Lord Oxford, bubbled when they were commended, and laughed at when they were undone. Some late events will, I hope, open our eyes; we ſhall ſee we are an iſland, and endeavour to extend our commerce, rather than the Quixote reputation of redreſſing wrongs, and placing diadems on heads that ſhould be equally indifferent to us. When time has ripened mankind into common ſenſe, the name of conqueror will be an odious title. I could eaſily prove, that had the Spaniards eſtabliſhed a trade with the Americans they would have enriched their country more than by the addition of twenty-two kingdoms, and all the mines they now work: I do not ſay poſſeſs, ſince, though they are the proprietors, others enjoy the profit."——(vol. v. p. 50.)

With reſpect to the editor's ſhare in this publication, we muſt confeſs that the account he has given us of this intereſting writer is by no means calculated to ſatisfy even the juſt curioſity of his readers. This, however, may not be wholly his fault. But he is cenſurable for the typographical errors which he has permitted to remain. If he look at pages 74, 88, 93 *twice*, 130, of the firſt volume, and learn that ſimilar or groſſer errata are ſcattered through the reſt, he will acknowledge that a more correct eye muſt be employed upon the next edition.

It might ſeem hypercritical to point out the metrical defects in the inſcription altered from Cowley by Lady Mary; vol. iii. p. 249. But if the editor has printed it as it came from her pen, he ſhould have remarked that, although the requiſite grammatical alterations had been made, ſome others were ſtill neceſſary for the preſervation of the verſe. *Et* for *ut*, line 9, as it properly ſtands in Cowley's text, is probably to be added to the liſt of typographical blunders.

We muſt conclude with an expreſſion of unaffected ſurpriſe, that the only monument which appears to have been erected

to

to the memory of this extraordinary perſon is the cenotaph placed at Litchfield, and, it ſhould ſeem too, by a ſtranger. If this be ſo, her family, ſurely, has been deficient in a ſenſe of what it owes to a female whoſe endowments would ennoble any deſcent: if otherwiſe, the editor has by implication imputed to them an ungrateful negligence, of which we ſhall be happy, by further information, to find that they ſtand acquitted. Lady Mary, it muſt be recollected, was not only admirable for the cultivation of thoſe powers which enliven ſolitude or adorn ſociety, but the author of a national bleſſing, by introducing the comparatively mild and ſecure method of inoculation. Rather than ſtand indebted for monumental honours to the caſual gratitude of a ſtranger, ſhe ought to have a tomb erected at the public coſt, as a greater benefactor to the human race than many whoſe achievements are proudly inſcribed on "the ſtoried urn;" or whoſe features ſurvive the depredations of time in the "animated buſt."

ART. CXXX. *An Experimental Inquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat. By John Leſlie. Illuſtrated by Nine Plates, by Lowry.* 8vo. pp. 578. price 14*s.* Mawman. London. 1804.

THE ſubject of this work is, perhaps, of all others, the moſt important that falls within the province of the natural philoſopher, and, ſince the ineſtimable diſcoveries of Doctor Black, it has aſſumed a new form; the ſober path of experiment and induction, which were before moſt ſucceſsfully purſued in mechanical ſcience, having led, in this, to equally brilliant diſcoveries. There is no branch of phyſics, indeed, in which ſobriety of inquiry is more expedient than in that of heat; and none in which the imagination is more tempted to indulge the 'baſeleſs viſions' of hypotheſis: for the cauſe of heat eludes the reach of thoſe ſenſes that bring us acquainted with the material world in general, and is deficient in moſt of thoſe characters of matter that are alone the objects of preciſe knowledge. It is only, therefore, from phenomena, requiring the moſt nice and attentive obſervation, that our inferences reſpecting heat can be derived; and, after all, theſe muſt reſt on a very ſlender foundation; for, in the progreſs of inquiry, what was prized as certain and valuable knowledge, often proves, in the ſequel, to be founded on error or inaccurate obſervation. Thus it appears now to be more than probable, that equal increments of heat do not produce equal expanſions of the mercury of the thermometer; and hence the

the competency of this inſtrument to meaſure heat, together with a long train of reaſoning dependent upon it, neceſſarily fall to the ground.

The work before us contains, mingled together, much of experiment and much of ſpeculation. Theſe, in our review of it, we ſhall endeavour to ſeparate; preſenting, firſt, a general outline of Mr. Leſlie's facts; and, next, a ſummary of the doctrine which he builds on them.

Previouſly however to an account of the experiments, it is neceſſary to give a general idea of the apparatus employed in them, which appears to have had as much ſimplicity as was conſiſtent with the accurate admeaſurement of the effects produced. Their principal object was to diſcover the laws that regulate the reflection and radiation of heat; and thence to deduce inferences reſpecting the cauſe that gives birth to the phenomena. The reflectors employed by Mr. Leſlie were concave ſpecula of block tin, hammered and highly poliſhed, and of a form adapted to the particular object of the experiment; but, in general, the parabolic figure was preferred. They were ſupported from a table by a ſmall wooden frame or ſtand, ſo contrived, that the poſition of the reflector could be varied at pleaſure. As a ſource of heat, caniſters, filled with hot water, were employed. Theſe were hollow cubes of block tin, hammered to a ſmooth and bright ſurface, and having an orifice at the middle or upper ſide, between half an inch and an inch diameter. This orifice received a cap, pierced with the ſtem of a thermometer, whoſe bulb reached nearly the centre of the hot water. The cubes varied in ſize from three to ten inches. One ſide was conſtantly kept clean and bright; the oppoſite one was covered with writing-paper paſted to it, or was painted over with a coat of lamp-black. The other ſides, being devoted to miſcellaneous ſervices, were coated, as the caſe required, with tin-foil, coloured paper, or different pigments, or had the nature of their ſurface changed by mechanical or chemical agents.

But the inſtrument moſt eſſential in theſe reſearches was an air-thermometer of peculiar conſtruction, which Mr. Leſlie has termed the 'differential thermometer.' Of its form and mode of action a tolerable conception may be acquired, by ſuppoſing a glaſs tube ſhaped like the letter U, and ſurmounted at each apex with a hollow ball. Each leg of the inſtrument is from three to ſix inches in height, and the balls are from two to four inches apart. The tube is filled, and one of the balls partly alſo, with a coloured liquid; and the lower portion of the ſyphon is cemented, at its middle, into a ſlender wooden pillar, which is inſerted into a round or ſquare

ſquare bottom; ſo that the balls ſtand on a level with the centre of the ſpeculum. "So long as both balls are of the ſame temperature, whatever this may be, the air, contained in the one, will have the ſame elaſticity as that in the other; and, conſequently, the intercluded coloured liquor, being thus preſſed equally in oppoſite directions, muſt remain ſtationary. But if, for inſtance, the ball which holds a portion of the liquor be warmer than the other, the ſuperior elaſticity of the confined air will drive it forward, and make it riſe in the oppoſite branch above the zero, to an elevation proportional to the exceſs of elaſticity or of heat. The interval between freezing and boiling water being diſtinguiſhed into an hundred equal parts, called centigrade, each of theſe, ſubdivided decimally, conſtitute the degrees which I employ, and which, following up the ſame ſyſtem of nomenclature, would be termed milligrade. I need ſcarcely add, that I had a variety of theſe thermometers of different ſizes, and of ſome diverſity of forms, adapted for particular occaſions."

When the caniſter, filled with hot water, is ſet on its ſtand, a few feet diſtant from the reflector, the heat which flows from the water, is brought to a focus by the reflector; and, if the ball of the differential thermometer, containing the coloured liquor, be now brought into the focus, the coloured liquor in the other leg of the ſyphon is immediately ſeen to riſe. In the ſpace of two or three minutes it will have attained the top of the ſcale, and will then deſcend again as the liquor cools. By varying the ſide of the caniſter, or covering it with different ſubſtances, the effect of theſe coverings on the propagation of its heat may be diſtinctly aſcertained, and may be meaſured by the degree of elevation of the liquor of the thermometer. The experiments ſucceed equally with cold as with heat, but the movement of the coloured liquid is in a reverſe direction when the caniſter is filled with ice.

The greateſt effect of the heated caniſter, on the focal ball of the thermometer, was produced when the ſide painted black was preſented to the reflector. This aſcent of the liquor being denoted by the number 100, the ſide covered with paper raiſed it to 98; that coated with glaſs to about 90; and the bright metallic ſide only to 12 degrees. The difference between the heat emitted by the blackened and by the bright ſide of the caniſter was palpable even to the hand; for, when held about an inch from the blackened ſide, the warmth is ſenſibly felt; while, to perceive any heat from the bright ſide, requires the hand actually to touch it. Theſe facts are extremely curious, and could not have been anticipated from theory.

theory. For though it had been long ago aſcertained, that blackening the ball of a thermometer renders it much more ſenſible to the impreſſion of heat; yet, if this effect reſult from any particular affinity or ſuperior attraction, how ſhall we explain why blackened ſurfaces alſo diſcharge heat moſt copiouſly?

The effect was next tried of interpoſing ſcreens between the radiating body and the ſpeculum. One of tin-foil totally intercepted the tranſmiſſion of heat, and annihilated the effect on the thermometer. A pane of glaſs, placed two inches from the thermometer, reduced the effect to the fifth part of its intenſity, and, when advanced twelve inches from the caniſter, to the thirtieth part. Hence the rays of heat appear to be incapable of permeating glaſs, through which thoſe of light are readily tranſmitted. A ſcreen of paper, ſet two inches before the caniſter, reduces the effect to about one-fourth. When two panes of glaſs, each coated on one ſide only with tin-foil, are placed together, with their metallic ſurfaces outward, no heat reaches the reflector; but when the glaſs ſurfaces are exterior, the impreſſion is about one-fifth of its uſual amount. In a ſimilar manner, two ſheets of tin, each having one ſide painted black, entirely ſcreened the heat, when placed in contact before the caniſter, with their bright ſides outwards; but they tranſmitted about a fifth, when the blackened ſurfaces were exterior. On ſeparating however the plates, about two inches from each other, the effect on the thermometer diſappears.

The ſeries of experiments on the effect of varying the diſtance between the caniſters and the reflectors, and on different ſizes of the caniſters, tend to ſhew that the tranſmiſſion of heat admits, in this reſpect, of compariſon with that of light, which ſuffers by abſorption the loſs of only one-fifth part in its perpendicular deſcent through the atmoſphere. The reflection of heat, it appears alſo, is liable to be affected with a certain conſtant meaſure of aberration or diſperſion. Thus, in addition to the principal reflected ray, there are others extending perhaps 10 or 15 degrees on each ſide of it; but growing rapidly feebler as they diverge. In proof of this, a taper can ſcarcely be drawn two inches from the axis of the reflector without the luminous ſpot entirely leaving the focal ball. Such then is the extreme limit of the optical focus. But the action of heat is much more extenſive; for the caniſter, removed by ſucceſſive ſtations along the table, at right angles, to the axis of the reflector, ſtill continued to exert its effect, though with declining energy, on the differential thermometer;

mometer; nor did the impreſſion ceaſe to be diſtinctly perceptible till the caniſter was drawn aſide ſeven or eight inches.

A curious conſequence, derivable from the aberration, which affects the reflection of heat, is, that the effect does not attain its maximum at the true focus, but ſomewhat nearer the reflector; and experiment confirmed this inference. For, when the differential thermometer was advanced half an inch nearer the reflector than the true focus, the effect was augmented more than one-third; and bringing it ſtill cloſer by half an inch, though the effect began to decline, it was ſtill one-fourth greater than at firſt. On the contrary, when the differential thermometer was moved backwards, the impreſſion diminiſhed very faſt, and, at one inch beyond the focus, did not amount to one-ſeventh part.

The rays of light, flowing from a luminous body, are diffuſed equally in all directions. Does the ſame law hold reſpecting heat? 'Fortunately, a very ſimple method preſented itſelf for reſolving this queſtion. In all uniform radiations, the force of the rays from each ſingle point is, at equal diſtances, the ſame, in whatever direction they iſſue; and, conſequently, their aggregate effect muſt depend entirely on the number of thoſe points, without being in any reſpect modified by the relative poſition or the inclination of the radiant ſurface. Now it was found by experiment, that the ſame effect was produced, by admitting calorific rays, through a given aperture in a ſcreen, to the reflector, from a flat as from a cylindrical ſurface; whereas the ſurface of a hemiſphere, it is well known, is double that of its baſe. Hence we may conclude, in general, that the remote action of a heated ſurface is equivalent to that of its orthographic projection, or can be eſtimated by the viſual magnitude of its ſource. A caniſter of a priſmatic form will therefore produce the ſame effect on the thermometer, when its acute angle is turned towards the reflector, as if, with an inverted poſition, it had preſented its baſe. All Mr. Leſlie's inveſtigations connected with this ſubject concur to prove, *that the action of a heated ſurface is proportional to the fine of its inclination.*

The next ſeries of experiments had for their object to determine in what degree the aërial tranſmiſſions of heat or cold are affected by the ſpecies or quality of the propellent ſurface. The following is a ſummary of the reſults:

Reckoning the action of the blackened ſide of the caniſter	100°
The application of a ſteel plate to another ſide, gave	15
Tarniſhing the ſurface of another ſide with quick-ſilver	14

Copiouſly moiſtened with quickſilver, ſo as to reſtore brightneſs	20°
A clear but rough ſurface of lead	19
A ſurface of lead, covered with a dark-gray cruſt	45
The ſame, covered with plumbago	75
..... minium, or red lead	80
..... a thin coat of iſinglaſs	80
..... ſealing-wax	95
..... reſin	96
..... writing-paper	98
..... ice	85

The clean tin ſide being reckoned to produce an effect	12
When ſcraped with a bright but irregular ſurface, it gave	16
When ſcraped with a toothed veneering iron	17
..... the edge of a fine file	23
..... ditto ..... in a greater degree	26

The laſt ſeries of experiments ſhow the remarkable effect of ſcratches, or ſtriæ, in promoting the radiation of heat. Similar differences are produced by coating the ball of the differential thermometer with bright and ſcratched ſurfaces of metal. If the ſcratches however be furrowed acroſs, the power is again diminiſhed, and reduced nearly to that of a plain ſurface. Common tin has the power of 25, whereas planiſhed block tin has only that of 12 or 13.

Various experiments proved, that with the ſide of the caniſter coated, the propellent power is modified by the thickneſs of the ſuperſtratum, and is proportional to it. The diſpoſition of a ſubſtance to diſcharge or abſorb heat, appears alſo to bear a ratio to its ſoftneſs. Thus lead radiates more heat than tin. When a black ſurface gave the effect of 100, a red one gave 90, and a white one 85. The quality of the pigment, however, is to be taken into the account. Writing-paper, for example, gives 98; but, when rubbed with chalk, only 90, or even leſs. On the whole, it appeared very doubtful, whether any influence can juſtly be aſcribed to colour; but the queſtion is incapable of being poſitively reſolved, ſince no ſubſtance can be made to aſſume different colours, without at the ſame time changing its internal ſtructure.'

Mr. Leſlie next proceeds to the determination of thoſe circumſtances that modify the power of reflection. The different metals, when tried as reflectors, gave the following reſults:

Braſs

Braſs	100°
Silver	90
Tin-foil	85
Planiſhed block-tin	80
Steel	70
Lead	60
Tin-foil ſoftened by mercury, with a brilliant ſurface	50

By deſtroying the poliſh of a tin reflector with ſand-paper, its reflecting power was reduced nine-tenths. Coated with a thick layer of tallow, it fell from 100 to 8; with olive-oil, to 42. Coats of iſinglaſs acted as follows:

Thickneſs of the film in millionth parts of an inch.	Influence of the ſubſtratum of tin.
$2\frac{1}{2}$	90°
10	85
20	79
50	53
100	31
200	21
500	13
1000	7

The influence which covering glaſs with fine metallic plates had, was learned in the following manner:—A caniſter was provided, one ſide of which was of glaſs, and this was ſucceſſively coated with leaf-gold, ſilver, and copper. The apparatus being properly diſpoſed, and the glaſs ſide preſented, ſucceſſively gilt with different metals, the impreſſion on the focal ball was nearly that produced by a bright ſurface of tin. 'Thus, notwithſtanding the extreme tenuity of the metallic leaves, the action of heat is the ſame, or nearly the ſame, as if they had a conſiderable thickneſs of ſubſtance. No viſible influence is exerted by the vitreous ſubſtratum. Yet with films of iſinglaſs, equally attenuated, the interior ſurface diſplayed almoſt its full effect.'

The more copious radiation of heat, in conſequence of the application of different ſubſtances to a metallic ſurface, muſt neceſſarily be attended with variations in the rate of cooling, in the water included in the caniſter: accordingly it was found, that blackening the ſurface of a metallic ball, filled with hot water, almoſt doubles the rate of cooling. The water in a tin veſſel, which cools through a given number of degrees in eighty-one minutes, deſcends through the ſame number in ſeventy-two minutes, when the ſurface is tarniſhed with quickſilver. The rate of cooling in the water of a clean tin ball is to that included in the ſame ball, when covered

with oiled paper, as 58 to 105. Films of iſinglaſs accelerate cooling, in the ratio of their thickneſs. A tin caniſter, filled with hot water, cools much more quickly with a covering of one fold of flannel, but returns again to its former rate when more folds are applied; the energy of its unmetallic ſurface being then compenſated by the retardation ariſing from the thickneſs of its ſpongy maſs.

In a gentle gale of wind, theſe differences in the rate of cooling were ſtill found to ſubſiſt; but a ſtrong current of air annihilated them; and the water in a bright metallic ball was found, in a briſk wind, to loſe its heat as quickly as when the ball was painted black. By whirling a ball, filled with hot water and ſuſpended by a ſtring, through the air, with different velocities, it was aſcertained, that *the refrigerant power of a ſtream of air is exactly proportional to its velocity;* and the ſame rule ſeemed to obtain in currents of water. This law Mr. Leſlie very ingeniouſly applies to the admeaſurement of the velocity of the wind, and of currents of water, by means of the thermometer. In perfectly ſtill water, as well as in currents, a blackened and a bright tin ball of hot water cool at the ſame rate. The action of pigments in accelerating cooling is exerted only when air is the ambient medium.

The refrigerating action of the air, Mr. Leſlie finds to depend on ſeveral cauſes. "There are," he obſerves, "four diſtinct modes in which it produces the effect: three of theſe are always conjoined, and the fourth only throws in its occaſional influence. They all conſpire to the ſame end; but their relative ſhares of operation are various and mutable. One ſource of communication depends on the quality of the heated ſurface; another on its elevation of temperature; a third on the permanent conducting diſpoſition of the air; and the laſt ariſes from the celerity of impulſe by which that active fluid may chance to be affected. The continual aſcent of the hot, and conſequently rarified air, muſt contribute, in ſome degree, though indirectly, to accelerate the effect; for it is evident that the ſtagnation of a warm encircling atmoſphere would debilitate the operation of the combined refrigerating cauſes.

An intereſting and important part of Mr. Leſlie's work is the account of the conſtruction and uſe of the Photometer, an inſtrument of great ingenuity and ſimplicity, for meaſuring the intenſity of light: it is, in fact, the differential thermometer already deſcribed, with a ſmall alteration, one of the bulbs being coloured black. When both balls are tranſparent, and placed in the ſame temperature, it is evident that the coloured liquor muſt be ſtationary, ſince it is preſſed equally in each

direction: but, by colouring one of the balls, the light is intercepted and abſorbed; and if its ſubſequent diſperſion were impeded entirely, the intenſity of the luminous ſtream would be preciſely expreſſed by the elevation of temperature which it occaſions. This is accompliſhed, as completely as poſſible, by including the inſtrument in a glaſs caſe; and the degree of effect is meaſured by a graduated ſcale.

Thus conſtructed, the photometer appears fully competent to the purpoſe for which it is deſigned. It exhibits, diſtinctly, the progreſs of illumination from the morning's dawn to the full vigour of noon, and thence its gradual decline, till evening has ſpread her ſober mantle: it marks the growth of light from the winter ſolſtice to the height of ſummer, and its ſubſequent decay through the duſky ſhades of autumn; and it enables us to compare, with numerical accuracy, the brightneſs of diſtant countries;—the brilliant ſky of Italy, for inſtance, with the murky air of Holland.

"In the latitude of 56°, the direct impreſſion of the ſun at noon, during the ſummer ſolſtice, amounts to 90 degrees; but it regularly declines as his rays become more oblique. At the altitude of 17°, it is already reduced to the half; and at 3° above the horizon, the whole effect exceeds not one degree. In the ſame parallel of latitude, the greateſt force of the ſolar beams, in the depth of winter, meaſures only 25 degrees. Their diminiſhed vigour is evidently cauſed by the diſperſion and abſorption which they muſt ſuffer in their protracted ſlanting paſſage through the atmoſphere. The law of decreaſe is likewiſe nearly that which has, from other principles, been aſſigned by the ingenious Bouguer; but, in this country at leaſt, it is ſubject to ſome variation and uncertainty, from the imperfect clearneſs of our inſular ſky. Between a fourth and a fifth part of the light of the ſun is loſt in a vertical deſcent to the ſurface of the earth; and as, even in the fineſt weather, a thin haze generally floats near the horizon, the ſucceſſive waſte, correſponding to each equal number of aërial particles which a very oblique ray encounters in its track, will often amount to the third."

The indirect light reflected by the ſky, Mr. Leſlie eſtimates at thirty or forty degrees in ſummer, and ten or fifteen in winter. He once attempted to determine, though with very imperfect means, the comparative intenſity of light on the top of the Great St. Bernard with that in the plain below, and calculated it to be about one fourth greater on the mountain's top. Much light, however, is certainly reflected from the ground. From a green field the reflection is about one-twentieth part of the incident rays. In a ſteady winter's day, the photometer ſtanding on a piece of newly ploughed ground, compoſed of black mould, indicated twenty-four degrees; moved

to a plot of ruſſet graſs, it marked thirty; tranſported to a ſmooth ſandy beach, thirty-three; and on a broad ſurface of ſnow, it roſe to forty-four. Snow, however, does not reflect all the incident light, about one-ſixth being abſorbed and loſt.

The photometer may be applied to various uſeful purpoſes. It affords a ready method of aſcertaining the various tranſparencies of bodies, and alſo their reflecting powers It may be employed in meaſuring the intenſity of various artificial lights. Experiments of this kind ſhow that tallow yields proportionally more light than wax, but a light not ſo clear or condenſed. In point of economy, however, perhaps the difference is not very material. The light, ſhed by the various inflammable bodies with which we are acquainted, may vary in its purity and degree of concentration; but its abſolute quantity appears always nearly proportional to their rate of conſumption.

The calorific energy of the light emitted by a coal fire is greater, by a third part, than that of the brilliant condenſed flame of a wax candle. That emitted by the ſun is 12,000 times more intenſe than that of a wax candle; or, if a portion of ſolar matter only three-ſevenths of an inch in diameter could be tranſported to this earth, it would afford as much light as 12,000 ſuch candles. The illuminating power of the ſun appears, from calculation, to be 150,000 times greater than that of the moon: indeed, the light of the latter does not affect the photometer, even when aided by a reflector.

By framing the photometer with different water colours, their calorific power appeared to obſerve this order;—white, red, yellow, green, blue, black.

The photometer affords an excellent means of meaſuring the conducting power of different gaſes, and of the ſame gas under different circumſtances of preſſure; for the ball of the inſtrument may be heated, when confined in theſe gaſes, by the incidence of light; and the rate of its cooling will be proportional to the conducting power. The dilatation of air by the air-pump was found to depreſs its power of abſtracting heat; and ſo did the addition of fluids which cauſe its dilatation, as ether and alcohol. Of the permanent gaſes, azotic and oxygenous gas ſeem to conduct heat nearly in the ſame degree: but carbonic acid abſtracts heat from a vitreous ſurface about an eighth part ſlower, and from a ſurface of metal one fourth ſlower, than common air. Hydrogenous gas, however, conducts heat with unuſual energy; more than doubling the expenditure of heat from a vitreous ſurface, and accelerating

rating the proceſs of refrigeration almoſt four times from a ſurface of metal.

If the air within the caſe of the photometer communicate at all within with the external atmoſphere, the inſtrument will be ſubject to a ſlight modification in the ſcale of its meaſures. With the ſame intenſity of light, it will indicate a greater impreſſion, if the air grows either lighter or warmer. Such corrections, however, being only about the 316th part of the ſcale for every tenth of an inch of the barometer, may be generally diſregarded.

Such are the principal facts which the inveſtigations of this ingenious author have eſtabliſhed. We ſhall now proceed to offer a general view of the inferences which he has drawn from them.

Reſpecting the nature of heat, Mr. Leſlie rejects that theory which makes it conſiſt in vibrations, and expreſſes his decided conviction, that the expanſion occaſioned by heating a body, ariſes from the influx of an extraneous matter. Of this calorific agent, fluidity, he thinks, muſt be the eſſential form; and extreme tenuity and elaſticity muſt alſo belong to it. —But,

"Is it a new and peculiar kind of fluid, or is it one with which, from its other effects, we are already in ſome manner acquainted? If any ſuch can be diſcovered that will ſtrictly quadrate with the phænomena, the ſpirit of true philoſophy, which ſtrives to reduce the number of ultimate principles, would certainly perſuade us to embrace it. But in ſearching farther we may perhaps educe direct proofs of identity.

"Heat and light are commonly aſſociated. The materiality of light appears to be ſupported by irrefragable arguments, which I need not here repeat. It is emitted from luminous bodies with inconceivable force; but it muſt have previouſly been contained in them. Light has, therefore, two diſtinct modes of exiſtence—that of projection—and that of combination. The former ſtate only is that generally known and admitted. But all ſubſtances are capable of yielding light:—colliſion, attrition, inflammation, the action of the electric ſhock, are the ſeveral ways by which the effect may be produced. Two lumps of quartz, ſtruck or rubbed againſt each other, are made to diſcharge light: and the experiment ſucceeds not only in air, but under water and oil, and even within an exhauſted receiver; an evidence that the light is derived from the interior maſs of the ſtone."

From a full compariſon of the properties of light with thoſe of heat, Mr. Leſlie infers, that "light, while in the ſtate of combination, poſſeſſes the diſtinguiſhing characters which muſt belong to the igneous fluid;—extreme ſubtlety, powerful elaſticity or repulſion among its particles, and emi-

nent attraction to those of all other substances. A coincidence so striking in every point might alone incline us to consider light and heat as identical. But such evidence, however seducing, is only presumptive; and fortunately, the proposition can be supported by direct and irrefragable proofs. I need mention only a single fact, which, duly weighed, will appear entirely conclusive. *If a body be exposed to the sun's rays, it will, in every possible case, be found to indicate a measure of heat exactly proportional to the quantity of light which it has absorbed.* It were easy to multiply illustrations; but enough has, I presume, been stated to establish the conclusion, *that heat is only light in a state of combination.*' Projected with rapid celerity, it forms light; when combined with bodies, it acts as heat.

A part of the theory of heat, to which Mr. Leslie has directed much of his attention, is that of the cause of its propagation through the atmosphere, as well as through solids and liquids. The theory of radiant heat, espoused of late years by some philosophers, he considers as drawn from a very limited, vague, and imperfect knowledge of facts. He confesses, however, that the subject of the propagation of heat is still one of immense difficulty. It strains the imagination to conceive by what singular process a surface in the act of cooling or heating can dart its influence along, with prodigious velocity, on the wings of the ambient air." Are such motions, he asks, compatible with the laws of fluids? If they really existed, could they escape the cognizance of our senses. The idea of rapidly projected streamlets, he confesses in another place, though specious in some respects, is incompatible with the known laws of fluids, and directly refuted by experiment. We are, therefore, compelled to embrace the only alternative, and to refer the diffusion of heat through the atmosphere, to the vehicle of certain oscillations or vibratory impressions, excited in that active and elastic medium.

" The various disposition of bodies to emit heat is, therefore, derived from the diversified quality of their contact with the surrounding air. When there is any intimate approach of the adjacent boundaries, the fits of emission succeed each other with rapidity; but if the space of separation is considerable, they will follow slowly, and at great intervals. A hot surface of glass makes its deposits on the contiguous layer of atmosphere about eight times faster than one of metal: and the sums of these successive decrements, or the total quantities of heat discharged by pulsation, must consequently have that relative proportion. But the same principle explains likewise the various aptitude of different substances to receive or absorb heat from the impinging aërial waves. A surface of metal is in a condition to sympathize with the successive appulses eight times seldomer

domer than one of glaſs. Its receptive power, therefore, acts only during one eighth part of the time in which that of the latter is exerted. Hence, while a ſurface of glaſs or paper abſorbs almoſt the whole of the incident heat, a metallic ſurface does not ſcarcely detain the eighth part of it, but ſuffers the remainder to be reflected. Hence, too, the influence of a coat of iſinglaſs applied to a ſpeculum, in diminiſhing the quantity of reflection; for it occaſions an approximation of the atmoſpheric boundary, and conſequently augments the previous abſorption of heat. Theſe films were found, according to their ſeveral degrees of thickneſs, to produce an extended ſeries of effects. If a ſpeculum has its ſurface filled with parallel ſcratches, they not only diſturb ſomewhat the regularity of reflection, but diminiſh its power by their cloſer proximity to the contiguous air."

This theory, ſo far as we are able to comprehend it, appears to us to labour under difficulties at leaſt equal to thoſe which preſs on the one it is intended to ſupplant. It is not eaſy, however, to attain a clear conception of the ſcope and ſpirit of Mr. Leſlie's arguments; and we were conſoled by obſerving, that the author himſelf is aware of their obſcurity. "I will not diſſemble," he ſays, "that the explication advanced, requires ſome ſtretch of thought to comprehend it rightly; and, although conſiſtent in all its parts, it rather appears to ſavour of exceſſive ſubtlety and refinement. The imagination, unaſſiſted by the direct appeal of ſight or touch, is apt to be fatigued and bewildered by their multiplicity and unavoidable complication." We have remarked, alſo, occaſional inconſiſtencies and contradictions. Thus, in page 32, the author replies to the inquiry, "What is the calorific and frigorific fluid?" "It is only the ambient air." Yet, in other parts of his work he repeatedly and unequivocally declares his belief, that the cauſe of heat is itſelf a diſtinct and peculiar fluid, which, under another modification, becomes light.

We ſhall not ſtop to enter at large into the objections that might be urged againſt Mr. Leſlie's theory of the tranſmiſſion of heat through the atmoſphere by aërial pulſations. We cannot, however, forbear ſtating two facts, which alone ſufficiently influence us to refuſe our aſſent to this hypotheſis. The immenſe rapidity with which heat paſſes through the atmoſphere, appears quite inconſiſtent with its propagation by the vehicle of vibrating impreſſions; for its velocity ſeems, from the experiments of M. Pictet, even when emitted by bodies far below ignition, to be equal to that of light, as it was too rapid to admit of menſuration. On Mr. Leſlie's theory, alſo, heat ſhould not be tranſmitted through a vacuum; and in ſome part of his work he expreſſes a conviction, that if a perfect vacuum could be obtained, this would prove

prove to be the fact. Since, however, effects are proportional to their causes, we think, that if heat necessarily required an aërial vehicle, a more remarkable retardation of conducting power would have been observed in the experiments of Count Rumford; whereas, to the best of our recollection, he found the conducting power which a Torricellian vacuum bore to that of common air was in the ratio of seven to ten. For our own parts, have no difficulty in conceiving that heat, so far from being transported through the air on the wings of another body, darts through space by virtue of an inherent power, viz. by the high degree of elasticity appertaining to it when in a state of accumulation. This is the acknowledged property of light: and since light is deemed by Mr. Leslie identical in its nature with the calorific fluid, we deem it contrary to sound philosophy to explain their phenomena by different laws.

The style of the author of this work is much superior to that of philosophical writers in general. Sometimes, indeed, it is highly animated, and evidently flows from a mind of lively sensibility to every thing sublime or beautiful in nature, as well as of uncommon vigour in the graver ratiocinations of science. There are a few defects, however, which detract, in our estimation, from the general merit of the book. The opinions of the author are conveyed with far too much confidence; and he speaks with boldness and decision on subjects respecting which certainty cannot be attained. He neglects, also, to do that justice to the discoveries of contemporary labourers in the field of science, which might have been expected from one who has himself manifested no small irritability on the subject of literary claims: we allude to Mr. Leslie's ungracious reception of the important discoveries of Herschell on the solar spectrum. Indeed, any one who commenced the study of heat with the perusal of this work, would imagine that no valuable or important knowledge before existed on this subject; whereas in every chapter, the reader, who is acquainted with the experiments of Pictet and of Herschell, must recognize great similarity, in the investigations of Mr. Leslie, to the successful inquiries of those eminent philosophers. Notwithstanding these defects, however, we consider Mr. Leslie's work as entitled, by the importance of its subject, as well as by the ingenuity and success with which it has been prosecuted, to the attentive perusal of every man of science.

CXXXI. *The Life of a Lover. In a Series of Letters. By Sophia Lee. In ſix Volumes.* pp. 2307; pr. 1*l.* 16*s.* Robinſons. London, 1804.

CECILIA Rivers was the daughter of a country-clergyman, who left her in the bloom of youth and beauty, with no other reſources than a heart fortified by ſound principles, and a mind ſtored with elegant accompliſhments. Diſdaining to owe ſupport to the illiberal who could afford it, or to the liberal who could not, ſhe undertook the office of governeſs in a private family. After experiencing ſome inſult and mortification from low-lived upſtart citizens, ſhe at length became fixed in a more deſirable ſituation with Lady Weſtbury. Her notions of conduct, and her introduction to this lady, are thus repreſented:

" Induſtry ever brings with it the invaluable bleſſings of an approving heart, peace and independence. To me, theſe obſcure advantages are infinitely preferable to accepting the bounty of an affluent kinſwoman, who might at her own option render me a cipher in ſociety; and even then, by a look, reduce me to ſtifle in my own boſom the bitter emotions it might be almoſt burſting with. No, my dear! hard as my lot appears, I can better bear any thing than to become the ſacrifice of pride. I know my aunt's temper well; ſhe is (to uſe a kind of paradox) only eaſy by being ever on the fret; and, like many other people, makes ſo free with her own relations, as to vent on them humours which her menial ſervants could not be bribed to bear! Yet do not from this imagine me too proud to receive an obligation. When did I bluſh to be indebted to my Amelia? But am I not certain that her hand is not more liberal than her heart; and that every kindneſs they unite to laviſh, ſprings from the moſt exalted principles of ſympathy and benevolence? Too well do I know and too highly prize the pleaſure of obliging, to deny my friend ſo pure a ſatisfaction.

' I found your ſiſter-in-law, my dear, quite unhappy, leſt I ſhould loſe the opportunity of fixing with Lady Weſtbury; nor was I without a ſecret wiſh of being in a family ſo elegant and diſtinguiſhed. The hiſtory of the Lady we all know; but of her beauty we very imperfectly judge, however highly it may have been ſpoken of; it is indeed, exquiſite! I ſaw her too in the ſituation moſt diſadvantageous—under the hands of her friſeur; yet was I enchanted! She varies her humour I really believe every moment, only to diſplay her charms. She now found fault with the man—now laughed at him; yet was ever lovely, ever irreſiſtible! To talk to a governeſs was quite novel to her! She " wiſhed people would print catechiſms applicable to the common concerns of life:"—and broke off her inquiry into my qualifications for the employment, to aſk where I had got that ſweet morning-cap! Hearing I had purchaſed it in Paris, ſhe would have it off my head in a moment, to

ſee

ſee if it became her:—what cap would not! She was faſcinated with it; and became perfectly ſatisfied, that the woman who had taſte enough to dreſs well, muſt have talents for whatever elſe ſhe might undertake. Her milliner was ſummoned by expreſs; but two minutes had hardly elapſed before ſhe raved at the tediouſneſs of the creature; and having made up her mind not to part with the dear cap, implored me to take one of her frightful things in its place, which would confer an everlaſting obligation on her. Fifty caps were tumbled over, that ſhe might find one twice as valuable as that ſhe kept; and my compliance ſo bound her to me, that I made my own terms. I am to have a ſalary of fifty pounds a year, and a chamber to myſelf, adjoining to that of the young ladies; to whom the whole attic ſtory is appropriated. A table is to be ſerved for them and me; and a carriage to be allotted for us to take the air in. This arrangement once fixed, Lady Weſtbury told me, that, if I had any more ſtipulations to make, ſhe muſt give me a carte-blanche; and ran away to her vis-a-vis—as gay as ſhe was lovely. Never did I ſee ſo volatile, ſo beautiful, ſo faſcinating, ſo unformed a creature!" Vol. i. p. 64.

Lord Weſtbury, himſelf young, handſome, ſenſible, and of a domeſtic turn, had married in conſequence of a boyiſh attachment to his tutor's daughter. In the once loved object of his youthful thoughts, he found not the happineſs he expected. His wife, whoſe only charms were beauty and good humour, devoted herſelf wholly to the fopperies and even vices of high life. She was not indeed unchaſte; but ſhe liſtened with delight to flattery; no place was ſo inſupportable as home, and to fill up the void in her heart, ſhe indulged a paſſion for high play. Lord W. having endeavoured in vain to reclaim her, having in vain called her attention to domeſtic duties, at length gave way to his diſguſt, and ſought to bury the recollection of his diſappointments in exceſs, in diſſipation, or in more criminal gallantry. Amongſt other connections thus formed, he became intimate with Lady Killarney, young, rich, and licentious: but his heart, naturally virtuous, found his pains aggravated inſtead of ſoothed. The connection therefore was broken off, leaving a reſentment too deep to be eradicated in the mind of his paramour.

At this period, Cecilia ſaw my Lord for the firſt time, in company with his brother at the theatre. From the ignorance of her informant, ſhe was led to miſtake one brother for the other; and was at once deeply ſmitten with the look, air, and manner of him whom ſhe underſtood to be the younger, and unmarried. The impreſſion was mutual; and Lord W. in vain attempted to trace out the charmer who thus powerfully attracted his notice.—At length, (to uſe his own words,)

" Weary

" Weary of the ſearch, and completely out of humour, I ſent a few days after for my girls to breakfaſt with me, in hopes their prattle might drive away the ſpleen: they came—a hand of each in one of that very girl whom I had been ſo vainly ſeeking!—Confuſed, delighted, aſtoniſhed, I made a mighty fooliſh figure, I fancy; ſhe was no leſs ſurpriſed, I verily believe; for by ſome odd chance, I am ſure I was as much a ſtranger to her as ſhe could be to me. After ſome little time had been loſt in adjuſting our bluſhes, we entered into a rational converſation; and that ſweet voice once more vibrated to my ſoul!—What an accompliſhed creature did I find her! Bleſt with a heart which nature had refined, reading cultivated, and reflection matured; yet ſo unaffected, humble, and modeſt, that ſhe bluſhed if I but looked at her. My ſoul expanded, and grew light as air; when, juſt as I had led her into informing me that ſhe was the orphan of a clergyman, while the whole of her intereſting hiſtory hovered on the verge of her lips, and my heart on the verge of mine, Lady Weſtbury abruptly entered, and diſconcerted both; bantered me, catechiſed her, found a thouſand faults with the dear little ones; and, by every unpleaſant air, made me gueſs at her errand. Perhaps, in her whole life, ſhe never ſo much diſguſted me.—Who, that had ſeen her throw the evidently ſuperior Miſs Rivers at ſo great a diſtance, could have imagined it poſſible that they were born equals! —Not having been troubleſome enough before Miſs Rivers retired, immediately afterwards ſhe teaſed me for money; and being unwilling to have a violent quarrel, I gave her a ſum that I could ill ſpare. My pleaſures fortunately are not ſo expenſive as hers at any time; they now are confined to this houſe." Page 207.

The dangerous paſſion which had thus taken root, could not but increaſe with the numberleſs opportunities of meeting that were ſupplied by Lord Weſtbury's addreſs, and by the utter indifference of his Lady to every thing that was paſſing in the family. It is certainly marvellous that no one in the houſe ſhould ever remark the various interviews, which thus took place between my Lord and the governeſs of his children; and we can find no apology for the indelicacy (to ſay nothing more) with which Miſs Rivers peruſed a letter addreſſed to his lordſhip, and appropriated to herſelf a miniature likeneſs of him. Not the diamonds in which it was ſet, gentle reader! ſhe carefully ſeparated the gold from the droſs, and only kept that which was in her eyes moſt valuable. (See page 263, compared with vol. ii. p. 89.) However, as this miniature is the cauſe of two notable diſcoveries in the courſe of theſe volumes, a little inconſiſtency of character, a little trip in morality, muſt be excuſed for the ſake of the *great convenience*. From Lord W.'s experience of the weakneſs of the ſex, when his heart became eſtranged from his wife, it might be expected that he could not indulge this

ſecret

ſecret intercourſe with the beloved of his heart, without cheriſhing libertine ideas. Every propoſal of the kind was however uniformly reſiſted on her ſide, and at length this ſingular compromiſe was effected;

" Generous hearts make laws for themſelves, nor are governed by thoſe of the vulgar: let ſuch aſſert their own choice, and enjoy a happineſs but the more exquiſite for being unknown and unſuſpected."

' No words can expreſs the diſmay that ſeemed to ſeize Cecilia. She gazed on me a moment in cold and ſilent aſtoniſhment.'

" My God, do my ſenſes deceive me!" ' cried ſhe at laſt;' " or do I live to hear Lord Weſtbury avow himſelf a libertine? Hence, unworthy man! you have no longer a charm for my eyes! You have found, nay you may ſtill find, women who can receive and return a paſſion not pure enough to centre in one object. There wanted but this to reſtore me to myſelf!—I had a father, my Lord, who was virtue perſonified. The principles which God gave me, ſtrengthened alike by his precepts and example, early became a part of my exiſtence. Not even you can ſhake them!—Leave me, Lord Weſtbury!—Leave me!"

' The dignity of her mind ſeemed to dilate her fragile form, and too ſurely added to all its graces. I could not thus part; and with ſome determination ſaid—

" Miſs Rivers, you make me deſperate; ſit down, and give me the hearing you promiſed."

' Her heart obeyed the deciſive tone, though ſhe trembled in complying.'

" Why ſhould you imagine me a man ſo abandoned? Prevail on your heart to impute my error rather to my ſituation than choice. Fain would I approve what alone can bleſs me with you! But ſince ſo true and tender a tie ſtrikes you with horror, ſince a ceremony merely civil, and which owes all its force to the ſincerity of the vow pronounced, appears ſo holy in your eyes, I ſhall not purſue the painful ſubject; yet muſt I ever regret that even an apoſtle could contract, in a ſingle inſtance, a mind capable of the moſt liberal expanſion in every other. I will ſtruggle to conform to your pleaſure, ſince it muſt be ſo, and endeavour to exiſt without you. Yet, ſurely, it will be no crime to hope that the chances of life will one day enable me to hallow, in your own way, the vow with which my ſoul binds itſelf thus to yours. O, make that vow mutual, my ſweet Cecilia,' added I, falling at her feet; " be mine! —for ever mine!—mine only!'

" Generous Lord Weſtbury!" cried ſhe, ' ſhaking off as it were a painful dream, while the tears, yet ſwimming in her eyes, were by love converted to a ſparkling brilliance,' " you have retrieved my eſteem! you have indeed found the way to win me! I no longer heſitate to avow a tenderneſs which has hitherto been only the ſource of inexpreſſible anguiſh! You," ' half turning from me, as ſhe preſſed her white hand on her heart, with a grace ſhe alone poſſeſſes,'

poſſeſſes,' "you are its only object! A heart is wholly your own, from which this hand ſhall never be ſeparated! May the generous paſſion that thus binds our ſouls to each other, refine and cheriſh in either boſom every virtue;—ſo ſhall both be prepared for whatever lot God ſhall appoint us!"

'I took the human privilege of ſealing this celeſtial vow with an embrace; which, I am ſorry to add, conſiderably reduced my heroics, by reminding me that, after all, we were both mere mortals, and life a very uncertain poſſeſſion. Yet, to overcome my ſweet girl's ſcruples I knew was a vain hope, and to overrule them a baſe one. To guard both her and myſelf from the madneſs of the moment, I had made my own houſe, deliberately, the ſcene of trial; and I have rejoiced a thouſand times at this, perhaps, neceſſary precaution.

'The dear creature now gave way to a pleaſure ſo pure and exquiſite, that my very ſoul enjoyed it. I retained one hand, nay, ſometimes both, and was allowed to ſit down by her.' Vol. ii. p. 20.

This is the baſis of the ſtory contained in theſe volumes;—the hinge upon which all the future events turn. In the ſevere but neceſſary execution of our duty as guardians of the public morals, whenſoever they are likely to be affected through the medium of the preſs, we are bound to pronounce the vow here made very exceptionable indeed, and every way unworthy of two beings who are repreſented as ſo attractive from their various virtues. No man, during the life-time of his wife, a wife too irreproachable as far as the purity of the marriage vow is concerned, can bind himſelf to another woman without violating the laws of God, without being criminally ungenerous and unjuſt. No woman of delicacy or prudence, under any circumſtances, can ſuffer her affections to be ſolemnly pledged to a married man. The fair authoreſs, however, (we are ſorry to point out a fault of this nature in the works of a lady,) ſeems to have anticipated, and is deſirous to obviate this objection. "She is not" (exclaims ſhe, ſpeaking of her heroine) "among thoſe fancy-formed beings, who are made as ſuperior to the little as the great frailties of humanity: ſuch are, perhaps, as unneceſſary as they are unnatural. What human being has been without a fault? But the faults of mortality are various in their nature, and infinite in their kinds and degrees. The conduct of Lady Weſtbury will, by different diſpoſitions, be termed weak or noble; but let it be remembered that her fate is like her character—compounded; and ſorrow is as often the conſequence of her errors, as happineſs of her virtues." Vol. vi. 370.

We are fully aware of the imperfection of human character, and ſhould be as much diſguſted as Miſs Lee herſelf by a repreſentation

ſentation of "faultleſs monſters, which the world ne'er ſaw." But the art of a writer, who employs herſelf in drawing characters, conſiſts in pourtraying them as they are likely to exiſt in nature; and not in preſenting a mixture of excellencies and defects which are totally incompatible with each other. Thus a generous diſpoſition may err in the extreme of profuſion; but it would be ſtrange to draw a profuſe miſer. So we think Lord Weſtbury's character compounded of a ſenſe of honour, and a diſregard for it; of a domeſtic turn, and licentious inclination; which appear to us unnatural. Delicacy and imprudence, firmneſs and irreſolution, are blended in the character of Cecilia, in a way that we think not very likely to impreſs a judicious reader with the accuracy of the repreſentation. As to *poetical juſtice*, we muſt remark that this is a point which, if well-managed, will ſerve to correct the miſchievous effects of folly or guilt: when the characters to which they attach might otherwiſe be drawn in ſo enſnaring a manner as to endanger a reader's principles. But then, it ſhould be made to appear that the ſufferings are the actual and almoſt inevitable conſequence of the guilt or folly. If they be made independent of each other, the effect is loſt. In the volumes before us, we recollect very little of the ſufferings either of the hero or heroine that are brought on by their own miſconduct. Almoſt all the *real* diſtreſſes are occaſioned by the villainy and artifices of others; and if by chance we ſhould call to mind that they had themſelves deſerved ſome correction, the feeling is completely worn away by indignation at the authors of their calamities.

Beſides this capital defect, the management of the plot is, in many caſes, too artificial. Events happen ſo opportunely, that they immediately wear the look of contrivance; and Lord and Lady Weſtbury, perſons of ſenſe and diſcernment, are often the dupes of ſhallow artifices, and paſs days and weeks in torments, which half a dozen words of explanation would have completely diſſipated.

In ſpite of theſe objections, we muſt confeſs we have read theſe volumes with great and increaſing intereſt. One of them might perhaps have been ſpared, without diminiſhing the attraction of the ſtory: but ſtill we have been much intereſted. It is well that it falls to the lot of muſty curmudgeons, with buſhy wigs, to peruſe ſuch bewitching books; that ſo the inexperienced heart may be warned againſt the errors they contain, and the dangers with which they teem. Were it otherwiſe, the imprudencies and foibles of heroines would be remembered and imitated, while the diſaſtrous conſequences might be ſilently overlooked, or entirely forgotten.

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From a general recollection of Miſs Lee's other performances, we think her ſtyle improved; though it is, occaſionally, obſcure and turgid. We object to ſuch words as *multitudinous, referential, imperſonal, root-bound, inertitude*, &c. and to ſuch phraſes as *it is whims, it is thoſe*, &c. The word *obvious* is uſed in more places than one, we believe, but certainly in Vol. iv. p. 314, in a ſenſe which does not belong to it: and an error of a different kind occurs, p. 245. of the ſame volume. The authoreſs (ſtill a ſpinſter we preſume) muſt allow us to inform her that a lady's maiden name, and not that which ſhe is to derive from her huſband, is ſigned in the Church Regiſter.

Imperfections of a literary kind may, however, eaſily be redeemed by the good ſenſe which we meet with in many a page; by the judicious obſervations on duelling, matrimony, education, and the general conduct of domeſtic life. We may beſtow conſiderable praiſe, alſo, upon the lighter ſcenes which occaſionally enliven the work; and, that we may not conclude in a crabbed humour, ſhall take our leave of this performance by quoting the very lively deſcription of the perſonages who compoſe the Percival family:

"Is there nothing unconnected with myſelf I can deſcribe? Oh, yes! Colonel Percival; he is quite an original. Imagine a tall, athletic veteran, with a military air and a florid complexion, totally crippled, and ſtorming all day at his ſervants, as he once did at the enemy, till, thoroughly provoked, he diſpatches a crutch after each, as ambaſſadors for his legs. Think, too, at the ſame time, that you ſee his pious comely ſiſter coolly taking off her ſpectacles, and, while ſhe depoſits them in the caſe, turning up the whites of her eyes, and blending with his ſuperabundant curſes as many ejaculations. Worn out as much with this over-goodneſs, he often diſcharges upon her, oaths as fantaſtical as thoſe of Bobadil; while ſhe ſits expecting a little imp to make his appearance in each corner of the room. Whenever ſhe finds the Colonel determined on the victory, Mrs. Egerton haſtily gathers up her work, curls her ſhort noſe, and flies the hearing of ſuch *blaſphemiouſneſs*,—as ſhe terms almoſt the whole of her whimſical brother's converſation. He has long been uſed to have ſervants merely about him, and affects rough and peeviſh manners, rather to render them obſervant than from any natural harſhneſs of character. Whenever he finds his equals have indulgence towards him, he amply returns it. His niece comprehends this clearly, and rallies his oddities with ſuch a happy mixture of humour and affection, that his eye relaxes its ſeverity at once, and he bears her mother for her ſake. As the gout keeps him a cloſe priſoner, ſome brother-officer or old crony uſually drops in to attack him at cheſs or back-gammon; when, except he loſes, no creature can be more pleaſant. This ſets

us all at liberty: I retire to my chamber, Miss Egerton goes to the rooms, and her mother hastens to Lady Huntingdon's chapel.

"But the morning is the scene of notability with us. Mrs. Egerton rings her bell at sun-rise, and routs the lazy servants, whose hours have long been of their own choosing. Soon afterwards she descends, followed by her own maid with a soft cushion for her to kneel on, and several books of prayer of very formidable size. After mustering the family by roll, that the devil may not inveigle a single soul from her, even at the desire of its owner, she begins her devotions; and an extemporary discourse of some length, is followed by a full chorus. This was such a surprise to the invalids, namely, poor Colonel Percival and myself, that both of us waked the first morning in the greatest consternation. He supplied a symphony by labouring incessantly at his bell, which his niece at length answered, for Mrs. Egerton would not part with one of her congregation, had we both been in the agonies of death. Sophia came, bursting with laughter, into my room; her odd uncle, with a round oath, having told her, that "he conjectured all the milch asses, with which the town abounds, must have met at his door, by agreement, to treat him with a serenade." The pious lady has since allowed her hymn to be sung *piano*." Vol. iii. p. 246.

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"Under an affected harshness of manners, the virtues of his profession, generosity and benevolence, lie hid in Colonel Percival.—I doubt whether his sister, with all her piety, could muster two as valuable to society. Above all things in the world he abhors romantic names, and makes a frightful wry face whenever his niece is called Sophia. As to Cecilia Rivers, that he swears to be as affected as Pamela or Philoclea, insisting that I have Italianised plain Cicely, and adopted Rivers; of which, however noble once, he remembers only one man in his time, and he was hanged for horse-stealing. He persists in calling his niece Bess, and me Cicely. These whims, at first, distressed me; but I now laugh either with him or at him, and am rather a favourite, for he loves music.—Whenever his sister has routed the servants, and he her, he points to the harp, and cries, "Come, tune up, my sweet singer of Israel: the birds sing best after thunder." p. 252.

CXXXII. *The Life of George Washington.*

(Continued, from p. 292.)

THE intelligence of the restoration of Charles II. to the throne of his ancestors, was received by the northern and southern colonies of America with various emotions. Whilst Maryland and Virginia rejoiced, the inhabitants of the state of Massachusetts "saw in the restoration of monar-

chy much more to fear than to hope." Nor were they deceived in their prognoſtics. No ſooner was Charles inveſted with the regal authority, than divers acts of parliament were paſſed to reſtrain the trade of the American plantations. The diſcontent occaſioned by theſe acts in the province of New England, was heightened by the arrival of Colonel Nichols, and certain commiſſioners, who were authoriſed by the crown, after diſpoſſeſſing the Dutch of the territories which they occupied in America, "to hear and determine complaints and appeals in cauſes as well military as civil and criminal within New England, and to proceed in all things for ſettling the peace and ſecurity of the country." Nichols ſpeedily executed the former part of his commiſſion. After a very ſlight reſiſtance the Dutch ſettlements were ſubdued, and occupied by the Engliſh invaders under the terms of a charter, whereby a conſiderable tract of the country eaſt and weſt of Hudſon's river was granted to the Duke of York, from whoſe title the new colony derived the appellation which it ſtill retains. But in endeavouring to regulate the affairs of Maſſachuſſets, the royal commiſſioners experienced a ſyſtematic and obſtinate reſiſtance. Standing upon the charter of the colony, the New Englanders denied their authority, and refuſed to ſubmit to their deciſions. After a long altercation the commiſſioners were recalled, and the general court of Maſſachuſſets was ordered to ſend agents into England, to anſwer the complaints made againſt its proceedings. With this requiſition however, upon frivolous pretexts, its members refuſed to comply.

Whilſt the northern ſtates were thus at variance with the crown, the Britiſh dominions were extended in America by the ſettlement of Carolina. It is well obſerved by Mr. Marſhall, that the conſtitution drawn up for this colony by Mr. Locke, "ſoon furniſhed an additional evidence to the many afforded by the human race, of the great but neglected truth, that experience is the only ſafe ſchool in which the ſcience of government is to be acquired, and that the theories of the cloſet muſt have the ſtamp of practice before they can be received with implicit confidence." This celebrated conſtitution was adopted in 1669, and was found to be ſo inadequate to the ends of good government, that it was by the unanimous aſſent of the ſettlers aboliſhed in 1693.

After the departure of Nichols and the commiſſioners from New England, the inhabitants of that colony, diſregarding the acts of the Britiſh parliament, traded as an independent people, and, of conſequence, rapidly increaſed in wealth and power. This contumacy was, as may be ſuppoſed, highly

diſpleaſing to the king; who directed a *quo warranto* to be iſſued againſt their charter, in purſuance of which it was decreed by the high court of Chancery, in Trinity term 1684, "that their letters patent, and the enrolment thereof be cancelled." On the death of Charles II. (which event took place in the enſuing year) his ſucceſſor ſent to New England a commiſſion for a preſident and council, who were inveſted with powers entirely executive and judicial, the power of enacting laws for the government of the colony being retained by the crown. The commiſſioners, exerciſing their important office with lenity, ſoon fell under the diſpleaſure of James II.; who, revoking their authority, delegated all powers legiſlative and executive to Sir Edmond Andros, and a council to be appointed by the crown. Theſe harſh meaſures naturally excited in a high-ſpirited people the utmoſt diſguſt; and ſo eager were the New Englanders to throw off the yoke of ſlavery, that, on the receipt of the firſt vague intelligence of the landing of the Prince of Orange in England, the inhabitants of Boſton ſeized and impriſoned their governor, and about fifty of the moſt obnoxious of his agents. When the welcome news of the acceſſion of William and Mary to the Engliſh throne arrived at the capital of Maſſachuſſets, the new ſovereigns were immediately proclaimed "with unuſual pomp and with demonſtrations of unaffected joy." This example was ſpeedily followed by the reſt of the colonies, with the exception of Pennſylvania, where "the government continued to be adminiſtered in the name of James for ſome time after the abdication of the crown by that monarch was known." This circumſtance may be attributed not only to the pacific principles of the founder of that colony, but alſo to the gratitude of its inhabitants for the forbearance of James, who had abſtained from interfering in their government. In conſequence of this wiſe policy, though William Penn landed in America for the purpoſe of forming a ſettlement, at ſo late a period as October 1682, at the time of the revolution in 1688, the colony had already attained a high degree of conſideration among its ſiſter ſtates.

"The revolution, which placed the Prince and Princeſs of Orange on the throne, revived in Maſſachuſſetts the hope of recovering that charter to which the people were devoted, becauſe they judged of its merits rather from the practice which had prevailed under it, than from its letter. Elections were held by authority of the temporary government; and the repreſentatives, aſſembled at Boſton, immediately requeſted the council to take upon themſelves, until orders ſhould be received from England, the powers and authority veſted

veſted in them by the charter. This propoſition was acceded to, and the ancient ſyſtem re-eſtabliſhed.

"It was ſoon perceived, by the agents of Maſſachuſſetts, that the reſtoration of the old charter was not to be hoped for. The king very early diſcovered his determination to retain in his own hands the appointment of the governor. A new charter, with as many of the privileges of the old as were attainable, was therefore all that could be expected. In the mean time, expreſs authority was granted the colony to exerciſe the powers of government according to their ancient ſyſtem, until the new arrangement ſhould be made. The veſſel by which theſe directions were tranſmitted, carried alſo orders that Sir Edmond Andros, and thoſe impriſoned with him, ſhould be ſent to England.

"The general court deputed two of their body of aſſiſtants, Mr. Cooke and Mr. Oakes, to join their agents already in England, and inſtructed them to ſolicit, in the parliament and elſewhere, the confirmation of their beloved charter. Theſe ſolicitations, however, were unſucceſsful. The king adhered inflexibly to his firſt reſolution; and, at length, a new charter was framed, certainly more eligible than the firſt in many reſpects, but in which were made ſome very important changes, affecting radically the independence which had been ſo long practically enjoyed by the colony. By this new ſyſtem, the governor, deputy-governor, and ſecretary, were to be appointed by the crown, inſtead of being choſen by the colony. The governor could call, adjourn, prorogue, and diſſolve the aſſembly at pleaſure; he had the appointment of all military officers ſolely; and, with the conſent of his council, of all officers belonging to the courts of juſtice. Sir William Phipps, who was appointed the firſt governor, arrived at Boſton with the charter in May 1692. He immediately iſſued writs for a general aſſembly, which met the 8th of June following, and which joyfully accepted the charter, though a conſiderable party had been formed to oppoſe it. This charter united the colony of Plymouth to Maſſachuſſets, and alſo annexed Nova Scotia to that province; but, contrary to the wiſhes of both colonies, it omitted New Hampſhire, which from this time became permanently a ſeparate government."

Under this new charter, the province of Maſſachuſſets appears to have enjoyed the bleſſing of internal tranquillity till the year 1720, when differences aroſe between the houſe of repreſentatives and the governor, which continued for the ſpace of three years, at the end of which period they were adjuſted by an explanatory charter, affirming the power claimed by the governor to negative a ſpeaker, and denying to the houſe of repreſentatives the right of adjourning for a longer time than two days. In the year 1728, a new occaſion of conteſt aroſe in Governor Burnet's informing the aſſembly that he had it in command from the king to inſiſt on an eſtabliſhed ſalary, in lieu of the arbitrary annual grant which

had been usually made to the former chief magistrates of the province. The assembly firmly persevered in resisting this demand, which they regarded as unconstitutional and highly dangerous. Whilst this dispute was still pending, Burnet died, and was succeeded by Mr. Belcher. The new governor for a while insisted on the claims of his predecessor; but, being at length compelled to yield, he hit upon the expedient of advising an address from the house to the crown, requesting that he might be permitted to receive the sum which they had offered to grant him. "This petition being complied with, leave to accept particular grants was obtained for two or three years successively, and at length a general permission was conceded to accept such sums as should be given by the assembly."

The next instance of a refractory spirit on the part of the assembly of Massachusetts, occurred in the year 1757, when the Earl of Loudoun, returning from an unsuccessful expedition against the French, proposed to quarter a body of troops in the town of Boston. To this measure the assembly objected, upon the plea that the acts relative to the billeting of soldiers did not extend to America. In this instance, however, legal arguments were obliged to give way to the promptitude and energy of the military commander. On his Lordship's threatening to enforce his arrangements by the aid of a considerable body of troops, the assembly thought it expedient to compromise the dispute by passing a law to authorise the quartering of soldiers, which, without such a provision on their part, they affected to consider as illegal.

Thus have we endeavoured to extract, from this preliminary volume of the Life of Washington, such an account of the original establishment, and of the political constitution and genius of the North American colonies, as may enable our readers to judge of the predisposing causes which led to that revolution, in which the First President of the United States acted so distinguished a part. Mr. Marshall has entered pretty much at large into the military operations which took place in America during our various wars with France. Into these details, however, we have deemed it unnecessary to follow him. The share which General Washington took in the defence of his country in the earlier periods of his life, is very slightly noticed in this preliminary history; but we presume that it will be more particularly recorded in the ensuing volumes of this work, for the publication of which we wait with no small degree of curiosity.

ART. CXXXIII. *Sermons on ſeveral Subjects and Occaſions. By George Vanbrugh, LL. B. Rector of Aughton, and Chaplain to his Royal Highneſs Prince William Frederick.* W. Jones, Liverpool. Cadell and Davies, London. pp. 181. 8vo. price 5*s*. 1804.

MANY motives, it muſt be confeſſed, are preſented to the mind of a clergyman, in order to induce him to commit his Sermons to the preſs, and it is natural for a man to be pleaſed with the fruits of his own labour. It is right that his hearers ſhould applaud and encourage their Paſtor's endeavours to inſtruct them. But, not to mention the advantage which a compoſition may derive from a good voice and earneſt delivery, it is obvious that a diſcourſe may be both ſeaſonable and animated without merit ſufficient to enable it to paſs, with unqualified praiſe, through the ordeal of public criticiſm.

The peruſal of the various volumes of this deſcription, ſubmitted to our examination, ſuggeſted the foregoing reflections; and, with all our anxiety to promote the exertions of ſo meritorious a part of our fellow-citizens as the Parochial Clergy, we cannot but expreſs a wiſh that they would ſometimes pauſe before they publiſh. In the preſent inſtance, we can do little more than commend the good intentions of the reverend author, and hold him forth as one of the many individuals who are impreſſed with a ſenſe of the importance of their ſtation, as organs of public inſtruction. For induſtry in compoſing his diſcourſes, and for the ſerioufneſs which pervades them, we cheerfully beſtow our praiſe. But the praiſe can go no further. We cannot affirm that we have diſcovered in them any particular felicity in the choice of ſubjects, any extraordinary degree of knowledge in the matters with which they are connected, or any uncommon ingenuity in the manner of diſcuſſing them. Let our readers judge for themſelves.

The following paſſage is extracted from an Aſſize Sermon upon Matthew vii. 12.

" But there are evidently many caſes, in which we ſhould be greatly miſled in our reference to ſelf-love, or, in other words, to ourſelves only in our behaviour. The love we have for ourſelves is ſeldom untainted with paſſion or prejudice: and, if we were to conſider only what we ſhould deſire in any particular caſe, we ſhould not always avoid, if not the actual commiſſion of ſin, at leaſt the imputation of having given to others our countenance or aſſiſtance in it.

" For inſtance, if the Judge ſhould diveſt himſelf of his authority, and pardon the fierce felon, whoſe depredations on the human peace almoſt forbid compaſſion (if man can poſſibly fall to ſo low and depraved a ſtate as not to claim compaſſion!) ſhould the Judge pardon him, merely from the conſideration of what he himſelf would wiſh from him, were he in his ſituation: by ſo doing, he would himſelf be guilty of an high offence againſt his duty; he would hurt ſociety in the tendereſt part, and might certainly be ſaid to 'bear the ſword in vain.'

" So likewiſe, a perſon under the dominion of ſin, under the power of evil habits, is continually endeavouring to find out occaſions to gratify his violent propenſity: and were we in the ſame unhappy ſituation, we ſhould, doubtleſs, in many caſes, deſire and wiſh the ſame: and yet, on that account, to countenance or adminiſter to evil, would certainly be to commit ſin ourſelves, or, at leaſt, to be partakers of it.

" To remove theſe, and many other ſuch difficulties, we muſt neceſſarily underſtand the words of the text, 'in all things,' with this reſtriction, not as including all things whatſoever, in general, in the ſtrict ſenſe of the words; but all things, which our duty to God, our neighbour, and ourſelves, impartially and properly conſidered on both ſides, will permit us to do." p. 27.

Upon the denial of St. Peter, we meet with the following reflections, which although very juſt in themſelves, and, no doubt, calculated for the improvement of thoſe to whom they were addreſſed, yet unqueſtionably have not much attraction from novelty in the ſentiment or grace in the expreſſion:

" From the example of this apoſtle, we may make ſerious reflections upon the weakneſs of human nature, the extreme danger of ſelf-confidence, and the compaſſion and long-ſuffering of the Almighty, which lead to repentance. His fall ought to excite our watchfulneſs and humility, and his contrition ſhould prevent deſpair. Our beſt eſtate, the Scriptures declare, is but vanity. Even good perſons, through the imperfection of our nature, and the variety of temptations to evil, with which they are continually ſurrounded, are but little to be depended upon. There are ſeveral inſtances in proof of this in Holy Scripture: but the example of St. Peter is very remarkable. From having been ſo near the perſon of our bleſſed Lord, the natural warmth of his diſpoſition muſt have been excited to the moſt attached veneration. He had been a witneſs to his Saviour's immaculate life and converſation, and had ſeen the miracles which he performed. We are, indeed, told by the Evangeliſts, that all the other diſciples forſook their Lord, and fled. St. Peter, therefore, being ſurrounded with the moſt inveterate enemies; not a ſingle friend or diſciple near him; and the confuſion into which he was thrown, from the painful apprehenſion of the indignity and cruel death his bleſſed Maſter was at that time, moſt probably, to ſuffer; amidſt all theſe direful circumſtances, he

he might poſſeſs but little calmneſs of reflection. His conduct is, however, no leſs a proof of the weakneſs of his reſolutions, and forcibly inſtructs all future ages how frail and unguarded the beſt of men may be; how vain all confidence in human ſtrength; and how indiſpenſably neceſſary it ever is wholly to depend on God, and to pray to Him to protect us in the hour of temptation. His example muſt irreſiſtibly convince us of the inſtability of all human virtues, when the mind of man reſts upon them, and its own ſufficiency alone, and depends not on ſome ſuperior aid to ſupport it in the time of trial." p. 134.

The language of theſe Diſcourſes is not very correct. The relative is omitted much too frequently: one of the ſentences in the extract now made, and two in page 72, are completely ungrammatical. Nor is Mr. Vanbrugh ſufficiently guarded and preciſe in his poſitions; as when he intimates, page 23, that the word "therefore" is thought "to denote a ſudden tranſition from one ſubject to another;" and when he aſſerts, page 31, that it is "the principle of conſcience, which, more or leſs, in proportion to its powerful influence, makes the proper and juſt diſtinction between the barbarous and civilized part of mankind."

The volume concludes with a little tract on the Obſervance of the Sabbath, and on Private Prayer, addreſſed to the author's pariſhioners, which has appeared already before the public. We cannot but think theſe pages the moſt valuable part of the publication.

We are bound to add, that the book is beautifully printed, and does great credit to the Liverpool preſs.

ART. CXXXIV. *Traité d'Economie Politique:—A Treatiſe on Political Economy; or, A plain Expoſition of the Manner in which Riches are acquired, diſtributed, and conſumed. By Jean Baptiſte Say, Member of the Tribunate.* 2 vol. 1150 pages. Paris.

IF it be true that all melioration is impracticable in the maſs of ſociety, before the elements of which it is compoſed have each received previous improvement, we ſhould feel grateful towards thoſe enlightened men who endeavour to render that knowledge familiar which is moſt uſeful, and which is in general conſidered as beyond the reach of ordinary minds. Such is the end propoſed by M. Say, who, proud of being deemed a diſciple of Smith, has compoſed a treatiſe more elementary than the "Wealth of Nations," and more within the reach of every claſs of readers. He has not only rendered the principles of Smith clear to every underſtanding, but

but has gone further, and made important progreſs in this ſcience. The explanation of the great phenomenon of the production and conſumption of wealth is full of new and intereſting matter:—but before we enter on the ſubject of his treatiſe, we ſhall give an idea of the general conſiderations which are the object of his preliminary diſcourſe.

The purpoſe of Political Economy, according to our author, is "to point out the cauſes which favour the increaſe of wealth, or haſten its decline; to ſhew its neceſſary connection with population, with the power of ſtates, and with the happineſs or miſery of nations." "But," adds M. Say, "this ſcience has been always conſidered as ſerving, at moſt, to elucidate a few queſtions in favour of a ſmall number of men who are occupied by the concerns of ſtates: it has not been ſufficiently obſerved, that ſince almoſt every individual concurs to the formation of wealth, and all, without exception, to its conſumption, there is no one whoſe conduct has not a greater or a leſs influence on his own fortune and on that of the community, and conſequently on his own welfare, and that of the ſtate."

We have not, perhaps, ſufficiently underſtood that political economy, even in countries where the people are ſubjected to arbitrary power, is a general concern. The knowledge of perſons in elevated ſtations produces, no doubt, a greater effect than that of ſimple individuals, as the deciſions of the former have a far more extenſive influence: but can ſuch perſons be truly enlightened, while ſimple individuals remain in ignorance? And on the ſuppoſition that all, of whatever degree, who take part in public affairs, are adepts in the ſcience of political economy, while the nation in general remain uninformed, (a circumſtance altogether improbable,) how much reſiſtance would they meet with in the accompliſhment of their moſt beneficial plans? what obſtacles in the prejudices of thoſe who would reap the greateſt benefit from their operations?

In order that a nation may enjoy the advantages of a good ſyſtem of economy, it is not ſufficient that its chiefs alone be capable of forming and adopting the beſt plans; the nation itſelf muſt be in a ſituation to receive them. There muſt exiſt a fixed opinion on the cauſes of public proſperity; that is, the ſoundeſt principles of public economy muſt be profeſſed and acted upon by every claſs in ſociety, and the truths admitted among enlightened men ſhould be received as axioms among the people, and paſs, as it were, for current coin. It is juſt, that every one ſhould be acquainted with the place which he holds in the ſocial ſyſtem; that he ſhould know whether

ther his labours be uſeful to the play of the machine, whether he contributes to forward, or whether he clogs or embarraſſes its movement.

How ignorant and barbarous, even yet, are thoſe nations which call themſelves civilized! Traverſe whole provinces, examine an hundred, a thouſand, ten thouſand perſons, and you will ſcarcely find any in the number, who have notions of that elevated kind of knowledge which is the boaſt of the preſent age. That ſuch ſhould be ignorant of great abſtract truths, would be little ſurpriſing; but this ignorance extends to the moſt ſimple rudiments, and ſuch as are moſt nearly connected with common life: and although various nations of Europe, even thoſe which appear the moſt flouriſhing, expend fourteen hundred millions a year (about ſixty millions ſterling) for public purpoſes only, we are not to conclude from thence, that their condition is incapable of melioration. A wealthy Sybarite exhauſting in luxurious idleneſs all the refinements of ſenſuality, diſpoſing, for this purpoſe, of the labours and talents of a crowd of attendants, indulging in the moſt laviſh prodigalities to gratify his unbridled appetites, may find that all is well, and that political economy is carried to its perfection: but if we conſider that, in the moſt proſperous countries there is not one in an hundred thouſand, who has the privilege of accumulating any part of thoſe enjoyments,—when we ſee at every ſtep, in ſad contraſt, extenuated miſery at the feet of bloated opulence,—worn out labour feeding uſeleſs idleneſs, hovels, and palaces,—the ſhreds and tatters of indigence fluttering before the coſtly robes of luxury,—the moſt profligate prodigality mocking the direſt diſtreſſes,—we cannot conſider the reſearches as idle, by which we endeavour to trace the cauſes of theſe evils, and the remedies which may be applied.

The beſt principles, obſerves our author, are not always thoſe which are eaſieſt of application; the moſt important point is to make ourſelves acquainted with thoſe principles, and adopt ſuch as we may be able, or may wiſh to apply. But, in order to bring to the level of every underſtanding theſe points of knowledge which are moſt generally uſeful, we ſhould begin with ſuch propoſitions as are moſt ſimple in political economy, and aſcend gradually to the inveſtigation of the moſt abſtract truths. The well informed, only, can appreciate the difficulties of the taſk, and excuſe the neceſſity of recurring to certain intermediary ideas which are eſſential for the comprehenſion of ordinary minds, and even to render the work complete.

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The knowledge of a few general facts, which are almoſt ſelf-evident, does not form the perfect poſſeſſion of any ſcience. Moſt perſons know what a triangle is; but few are acquainted with all its properties, or its application to the purpoſes of geometry. Every one knows, that the wealth and ſtrength of empires ariſe from agriculture and commerce; but few can explain how the ſources of each may be increaſed or dried up. Nor will it ſeem an eaſy taſk to render theſe notions familiar, when we conſider that, like the ſcience of mathematics, political economy is founded on an abſtraction. In the former we treat of *dimenſions*, in the latter of *value*. Value, as ſuſceptible of the *more* or *leſs*, becomes a part of mathematics; but when placed within the ſphere of the faculties, of the wants and will of men, it is brought back to the moral circle. The application of the rules of algebra to the demonſtrations of political economy is therefore rendered ſuperfluous, no quantity here being ſuſceptible of a rigorous appreciation.

But another difficulty preſents itſelf, which is, that political economy is the concern of every individual; that we have for our judges, not only thoſe who have ſtudied this branch of knowledge, but thoſe alſo who are perfectly ignorant. Every man thinks he has a right to form an opinion reſpecting the value of objects, an opinion ſuſtained not only by perſonal vanity, like moſt other opinions, but enforced alſo by perſonal intereſt, which, almoſt in ſpite of ourſelves, exerts a very powerful influence over our judgment. When a phyſician writes on the art of healing, he may, without great riſk, lay down as a principle, that we muſt take nature for a guide: but whoever ſhould think of advancing, that the beſt mode of rendering a city or province proſperous is by interfering the leaſt poſſible in the affairs of either, would have to contend againſt the clamours of a multitude of ſectaries whoſe various ſyſtems might have become the ſubject of his cenſure.

The dryneſs or obſcurity of the works which have been written on Political Economy have rendered that ſtudy extremely difficult; but this is the fault rather of the Profeſſors than of the ſcience itſelf. The rules which form its baſis are clear to every underſtanding; the conſequences which reſult, are evident to ſuch as will take the trouble of following a chain of reaſoning. Political economy may therefore be brought to the ſame degree of preciſion as the other ſciences; nor ought the ſtudy of that branch of knowledge to be reputed dry or unintereſting which treats of the productions, of the miracles, if we may be allowed the expreſſion,

fion, of human induſtry, and of its end, that is to ſay, of human enjoyment.

Until Adam Smith, a diſciple of that diſtinguiſhed ſchool in the northern part of our iſland, which has produced ſo many hiſtorians, and philoſophers, of the higheſt order, publiſhed, in 1776, his celebrated work, intitled "The Wealth of Nations," Political Economy did not exiſt; that ſcience at leaſt which treats of the cauſes, of the formation, the diſtribution and the conſumption of wealth. Preceding writers had confounded with this ſcience, politics, or the art of government.

From the epocha of Dr. Adam Smith's publication, theſe two branches have been duly diſtinguiſhed. The name of Political Economy has been reſerved to that ſcience which treats of the wealth of nations, and that of Politics to the branch which embraces the relations that exiſt between the government and the people, or of governments with each other.

Political economy, which is founded on the knowledge of general facts reſulting from the conſtant action of the laws of nature in ſimilar caſes, ſhould be diſtinguiſhed alſo from the ſcience called by the French *ſtatiſtique*. This ſcience is confined to the knowledge of particular facts, the reſult of one or more actions modified by each other in a particular caſe, and which ſerves only to give the ſtate of the productions and conſumption of one or more nations at a certain period, or ſeveral ſucceſſive periods, as well as that of its population, its ſtrength, the ordinary events which take place, and which may become matter of calculation, more or leſs uncertain and incomplete, from the nature of the means it employs, the perpetual variation of the elements on which it operates, and the foundations on which it repoſes; whilſt political econony is built on a ſolid baſis from the moment that the principles on which it is founded are the rigorous deductions from general and inconteſtible facts.

Theſe principles are not the work of men; they are founded in the nature of things; they are ſelf-created; they govern legiſlators and princes, who never violate them with impunity. Theſe principles may be diſcovered by analyſis and obſervation; and if theſe diſcoveries are retarded, or if they are ſtill the ſubject of doubt or diſpute, they partake of that deſtiny in common with the foundation of almoſt all the ſciences. The reſiſtance made to theſe principles ought neither to ſurpriſe nor alarm us. The ſyſtem of Sir Iſaac Newton, rejected unanimouſly in France fifty years ago, is now taught in every ſchool. Thirty years have ſcarcely elapſed ſince water and air were reduced by analyſis to their proper elements; yet we ſee the experiments, on which this ſyſtem is built, ſtill conteſted,

conteſted, though they have been ſo often repeated, in different countries, by the beſt informed and moſt enlightened men of Europe.

But in the ſame manner as men have lived on, without comprehending any thing reſpecting the compoſition of water or air; ſo ſtates have ſubſiſted, and even flouriſhed, without knowing on what their public proſperity depended. The antients, and the moderns till of late, appear to have had no notion of the exiſtence of the principles, the union of which forms what is called political economy. Since the time of Sully, the miniſters of the principal ſtates of Europe entertained certain but confuſed ideas, that agriculture and commerce were the two chief ſources of national proſperity; but theſe were truths which remained yet to be demonſtrated. Example has at all times been the harbinger of precept. The increaſing proſperity of the greater part of the ſtates of Europe, and even the changes they have undergone, have favoured reſearches into the cauſes of the proſperity of ſtates in general.

A confuſed idea of the uſefulneſs of this examination has facilitated its progreſs, and the natural and increaſing elaſticity of the human mind, diſengaged from the various obſtacles by which it was incumbered, have quickened its progreſs. A few feeble ſparks of momentary freedom were ſufficient to cauſe the reſurrection of letters, commerce, and power in Italy. In Germany, their influence produced the ſame effect. Knowledge introduced diſcuſſion, and diſcuſſion brought on a more regular and philoſophical mode of thinking. The ſtudy of man as a ſocial being, took place of other leſs important ſtudies, and a few enlightened perſonages, who perceived that the dreadful load of prejudice which had weighed for ſo many ages on an oppreſſed and weakened world repoſed upon ignorance and want of means to remove the burden, endeavoured, with ardour tempered by prudence, to ſap the foundations. To theſe beneficent and virtuous men we are indebted for the birth, and perhaps the errors, of what is called in France the ſect of economiſts, who founded the riches of the ſtate on the productions of agriculture alone; and it was alſo on this account that almoſt all the French writers of any reputation, who employed themſelves in matters relating to political economy from 1760, to 1780, have imbibed their opinions.

Queſnai was the founder of this ſect, which had an undoubted right to general gratitude, for certain principles on the cauſes of the wealth of nations which it laid down, the important truths which it developed with earneſtneſs and enthuſiaſm,

enthuſiaſm, and for the eſſential ſervice which it rendered to mankind, by directing their attention to objects of public utility: but theſe ſectaries alſo merit ſevere reprobation for the dogmatical language which they adopted, and the prevalence of that ſpirit which led many among them to treat with contempt various truths that were uſeful, and to hold up as axioms conſequences deduced from erroneous principles.

Previouſly to the introduction of the ſyſtem of the economiſts, Colbert had adopted a plan totally the reverſe, which has been followed by England, and the greater part of the ſtates of Europe, and which makes the riches of a ſtate depend, not on the amount of its productions, but on that of its exports, a ſyſtem which has been defended by Sir James Stuart, a writer whom Smith has not once cited, even by way of refutation, though he is accuſed of owing him great obligations. Theſe obligations, however, are not clearly aſcertained. Smith has taken an altogether different view of his ſubject from Stuart. He ſoars aloft, while the other creeps below. He perceived that there was ſomething good in his ſyſtem, as well as in that of the economiſts, but that the excluſive adoption of either was attended with great inconveniencies. He refuted their principles, their deductions, and their method, by reaſon and by experience, and traced out the true foundation of wealth. The obligations which he conferred are much more clear than thoſe for which he is indebted to others. The writings of the economiſts were, no doubt, highly uſeful to him, as well as his communications, during his viſits to Paris, with the moſt enlightened and eſtimable characters in France; but between the doctrine of the economiſts and his own, there is as wide an interval as between the ſyſtem of Tycho Brahe and that of Newton. Before Smith wrote, many true principles had been laid down; but he was the firſt who ſhewed the connection between theſe principles, and in what manner they were the neceſſary conſequences of the nature of things. He did more than eſtabliſh truths, he pointed out the infallible method of diſcovering error. He never makes an aſſertion, he never admits a ſuppoſition, that is not conformable to the cleareſt facts. His work is a ſeries of demonſtrations which raiſe a number of his propoſitions to the rank of indiſputable axioms, and which have precipitated a much greater number into that gulf where vague hypotheſes and extravagant theories, after ſtruggling a moment, diſappear for ever.

If Smith has not made his work a refutation of that of Stuart, it ſhould be obſerved, that Stuart was not a chief of the party, and that it was much more important to combat the

the opinions which generally prevailed at that epocha, than thoſe of any ſingle individual. Smith took a wide and comprehenſive view of his ſubject: nor are there any perſons, except ſuch as have not the faculty of comprehending him, who have ventured to think otherwiſe than he has thought. But it muſt be admitted at the ſame time, that he leaves us much to wiſh; in ſeveral places he wants preciſion, and he is generally defective in his arrangement. In order to comprehend him clearly, it is neceſſary to ſtudy him deeply; to aſſimilate our ideas, and in ſome ſort to identify our reflections, with thoſe which he preſents. For want of this, many enlightened men, who profeſs to be acquainted with and to admire him, have written on the ſubject of which he treats, without underſtanding a ſyllable of his theory. He has been reproached alſo, and not unjuſtly, with making too long digreſſions, with entering on diſcuſſions which hang too looſely to his ſubject: and if the excellence of a work depends as much on what is omitted as what it contains, it is rendering a real ſervice to knowledge, if, even without advancing its progreſs a ſingle ſtep, we ſeparate from it that uſeleſs matter which hinders us from taking in the whole, and connecting the different parts.

Since Smith publiſhed his ſyſtem, a number of works have been written on the ſubject of Political Economy, both in England and France; ſome of which conſiſt of ſeveral volumes: they have however added very little to the ſtock of knowledge on this ſubject, and none of them contain a complete body of doctrine on Political Economy.

To facilitate the ſtudy of this ſcience, and to diſſeminate this uſeful branch of knowledge; to collect in a luminous and methodical treatiſe, the principles and conſequences which the profound genius of Smith has laid down or deduced; to clear the road for this increaſing ſcience; to add whatever has been diſcovered ſince the publication of the Cauſes of the Wealth of Nations, or what the author of this invaluable treatiſe has omitted;—ſuch is the object of the preſent work, and the uſefulneſs and end of the undertaking are no doubt highly praiſeworthy. It is not to be deemed extraordinary that the author, conſidering political economy as the concern of every individual, ſeeks to place this ſtudy within the reach of all, by preſenting and developing at once, in a ſimple and elegant manner, a number of queſtions intereſting to every claſs of ſociety: for what more intereſting than to make ourſelves acquainted with the circumſtances which influence both public and private fortunes, and conſequently the enjoyments which Providence has

has beſtowed on mankind, and their independence, which is the firſt of bleſſings.

Such are the general conſiderations reſpecting Political Economy contained in the author's preliminary eſſay. We ſhall now give a ſummary ſketch of the arrangement of his work. It is divided into five books. The firſt contains an ample inveſtigation of the nature of production; which is only a production of value, and not a production of matter, ſince man cannot create a ſingle atom. Every object attains a greater value by means of induſtry. Induſtry is agricultural, or manufactural, or commercial:—agricultural, when it employs the power of the earth to multiply grain, fruit, and every kind of brute produce, which is the firſt and moſt eſſential to man: manufactural, when it increaſes the value of this firſt produce, to form other produce neceſſary to his wants: commercial, when it augments the value of merchandize, by tranſporting it from countries where it is common, to others where it is leſs abundant, or more neceſſary.

By following this analyſis, and explaining the manner in which induſtry makes uſe of two powerful machines, landed property and capital, M. Say treats of the different ways in which agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, augment wealth. It is here that he examines thoſe various important queſtions which relate to the diviſion of labour, the formation of capitals, the different ſyſtems of culture, the various modes of trading, and the reſpective effects of each on produce. It is in this place, alſo, that he attacks the reveries of the economiſts, and the ſyſtem of the balance of trade, which he conſiders as having no ſolid baſis, and which is generally contradicted by facts. Led on by his ſubject, it is here that he fixes his attention on the progreſs of induſtry and its various cauſes, which he attributes to the particular aptitude of each nation for thoſe operations which the different branches of induſtry require: this he exemplifies in a parallel between the Engliſh and the French, of which we ſhall here cite a paſſage.

After ſhewing the ſuperiority of the Engliſh in the fabrication and appropriation of certain objects to the various countries to which they are exported, M. Say continues: "This is not all: the Engliſh, who cannot yet rival the French in the arts which belong to taſte, in architecture, painting, and ſculpture, ſurpaſs them in general in the choice of forms, deſigns, and colouring, from which the induſtrious arts gather their profit. They poſſeſs, in a much higher degree, that part of induſtry which conſiſts in the application of acquired knowledge to the wants of life. They have no ſcientific men who,

in the theory of mechanics or chemiſtry, can rival La Place, Prony, Monge, Berthollet, &c.; but in the application of this knowledge to the induſtrious arts, the French are yet behind them. They have the ſkill to avoid the rocks on which the French ſo often ſtrike, namely, routine and verſatility."

We may make ſome allowance for the partiality of our author to his countrymen: but ſurely M. Say has here forgotten, for he cannot be ignorant of the fact, that, without the great diſcoveries of Prieſtley, Black, Cavendiſh, Crawford, &c. the elegant but equivocal ſtructure of French chemiſtry would have had no foundation, or rather no exiſtence. "And not only," continues he, "are they (that is, the Engliſh) dextrous in deriving aſtoniſhing advantages from the limited knowledge they have in the arts of taſte, but they alſo give to every thing which comes out of their manufactures the irreſiſtible attraction of conveniency. Their ſtuffs, their utenſils, are not only agreeable in their forms, in their deſigns and their colouring, they are ſuch alſo which are moſt convenient for uſe. In the fabrication of a tea-pot, others would imagine that every thing was completed when it had received the form of an antique vaſe; but the Engliſh require that it ſhould be handy, that it ſhould pour eaſily, that the mouth ſhould be wide enough to clean it without difficulty; and even the handle would be devoid of grace if it wanted convenience. The manufactures of other countries furniſh elegant ſtuffs; but thoſe fabricated by the Engliſh obtain an univerſal preference. In other countries, maſter-pieces of art are faſhioned, which ſuit only the great and rich, and which are fitted for the cabinet of the virtuoſo; the Engliſh fabricate for the maſs, what every one can obtain, and what every one can uſe."

The twenty-ſixth chapter of the preſent book contains a ſeries of intereſting obſervations on emigration, as far as it relates to National Wealth. The twenty-eighth treats of the produce of colonies. M. Say differs from Stewart, Turgot, and Smith, reſpecting the profits ariſing from Negro ſlavery. He conſiders the ſyſtem of ſlavery as highly advantageous to the planter; but, with the indignation that ſwells every feeling heart when this topic becomes the ſubject of reflection, he aſks, if "any advantage accruing to individuals is ſufficient to authorize the moſt horrible traffic which ever took place among men,—that of their fellow-creatures!" After animadverting on the cruelties of this dreadful commerce, he dwells on the ſufferings of the ſlave; whom he repreſents as "experiencing the hardſhips of ſavage life without its privileges, and expoſed to much greater fatigues than the civilized man, without ſharing in his enjoyments. Such is the exiſtence which he is made

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to purchaſe by the horrors of a ſea-paſſage, the detail of which makes us ſhudder. It is the road of Avernus which leads to hell!"

From the moment we conſider the different productions of ſocial induſtry as exiſting, it is natural to endeavour to diſcover the progreſs of each branch as it ſpreads itſelf among the numerous individuals of which ſociety is compoſed. To attain this point, it is abſolutely neceſſary to form a juſt idea of money and the value of things; the firſt being the moſt active agent in this diſtribution, and the value of things diſtributed, the foundation. Such are the objects of the ſecond and third books: the former contains an abridged but complete treatiſe on Money; the origin, nature, utility, functions, and qualities of which are pointed out, as well as the abuſes to which it is liable; the cauſes why it is impoſſible to give it a fixed value; that of its abundance or ſcarcity, as well as that of its greater or leſs circulation, and its effects.

The inveſtigation and diſplay of what relates to Banks and Paper-money makes alſo part of this book. M. Say ſhews the difference which exiſts between circulating banks, ſuch as thoſe of France and England, and banks for depoſits, like thoſe of Amſterdam and Hamburgh. He explains the ſources of their profits, their utility, and the nature of their operations; and after treating of bank-notes, the degree of confidence to be placed in them, and the difference between theſe and paper-money, he reſolves this delicate and important queſtion, How far are bank-notes an increaſe of the capital of a country? He defines, alſo, what ought to be underſtood by paper-money, which is the laſt term of the alteration of money by the authority of government, which alone can force the currency; and he explains what ſupports its value in unconſtrained agreements, by laying down the cauſes and effects of its creation in Holland, America, and in France, under the regency and at the beginning of the revolution.

In treating on the value of things, M. Say makes a juſt diſtinction between their *natural value* and *exchangeable value*; and in ſtating exactly what is to be underſtood by the quantity of a commodity in circulation, and by the extent of the demand, he diſcovers the cauſes and the effects of the variation in the prices, the inconveniencies attending it, thoſe which reſult from maximums, and the advantages ariſing from the active circulation of money and merchandize. But, after conſidering money as a circulating article of merchandize, he differs from Smith, who propoſes labour as the ſtandard of the value of every article, and ſhews the uncertainty and defect of this ſyſtem; without preſuming, however,

to offer any other more fixed: and though he ſeems, in certain caſes, to propoſe as the trueſt ſtandard the articles of life in moſt common uſe, he nevertheleſs leans to the opinion of Bacon, who conſidered money, in ſpite of its variations, as the only medium of the value of any commodity. M. Say, however, has thrown conſiderable light on a ſubject which hitherto has remained wrapped up in impenetrable darkneſs; namely, the difference which exiſts between real and relative dearneſs; between the value of an ox, which has neither increaſed nor diminiſhed in value ſince the fourteenth century, when it ſold from ten to eleven livres, and the price of a pair of ſtockings, the value of which has diminiſhed one half ſince the time of Henry IV. though it appears to be doubled. M. Say proves clearly, that the lowering of prices is not a diminution of the total value of commodities, but an augmentation in the maſs of thoſe commodities for the ſame price; that this alone gives ſuch articles a general circulation among the poorer claſſes; and the reaſons he alleges ſhow the illuſions of the economiſts, who, by confounding the fall in money with a real fall, have pretended that the lowering of prices is a diminution of the national revenue, and of the comforts of the lower claſſes, by lowering their wages. We muſt refer our readers to the work itſelf (book 3, chap. 4,) for the intereſting inveſtigation of this ſubject, where M. Say eſtabliſhes his own opinion, refutes that of his adverſaries, and preſents a reaſonable and philoſophic doctrine, founded on the nature of things, and juſtified by the moſt ſimple obſervations.

After analyſing the nature of wealth, as well as the cauſes by which it is produced and increaſed, explaining the operations of money, and giving ideas on the value of things, M. Say ſhows how wealth is diſtributed in ſociety. This forms the ſubject of the fourth book, intitled REVENUES, in which is comprehended Produce, or rather the Value of produce, which individuals or nations raiſe from their induſtry, their capitals, or their landed property, and the proportions in which it is diſtributed among the three great ſources of produce. He then paſſes in review the value of different productive ſources, the various circumſtances by which they are modified, and the effects which they produce. Theſe reſearches naturally lead him to treat of the profits of capitals and lands, of their variations, and of loans on intereſt: but whether he deſcribes, analyſes, or explains the nature, the cauſes, or the effect of this complicated machinery, he compels the reader to follow him in his examinations, his diſcuſſions, and his proofs, from the intereſt which he throws on each ſubject, and the clearneſs with which he reſolves the moſt

moſt difficult queſtions, by bringing back each to its true term.

To complete the theory of wealth, or rather the ſyſtem of its formation, diſtribution, and the decompoſition to which it is ſubject; and to finiſh the plan which the author propoſed, nothing more was wanting than to give a juſt idea of the means of conſumption and its effects. This is the ſubject of the fifth and laſt book.

M. Say enters at firſt into an explanation of the ſenſe attached to the word *conſumption*; and having proved that produce is not a creation of matter, but only of utility, he draws this juſt inference, that conſumption is alſo not a deſtruction of matter, but ſimply a deſtruction of utility, or, in other terms, a deſtruction of value; and he points out the difference between expenditure and conſumption, though theſe terms are oftentimes uſed as ſynonymous.

Having pointed out this diſtinction, M. Say proceeds to the examination of the nature of the different modes of conſumption, their degrees and effects; he ſhows how a new produce reſults from the one, and more enjoyments from others: thoſe he claſſes into reproductive and unproductive conſumptions, and animadverts on the pernicious conſequences of ſuperfluous expenditure and the fatal effects of luxury, which he divides into luxury of oſtentation, and luxury of convenience. This part of his ſubject leads him to treat of the too great inequality of fortunes, and of the vices with which it is attended, as well as of the inſufficiency of ſumptuary laws. After drawing an eloquent and juſt parallel between prodigality and avarice, and contraſting both with real economy, he enters on the ſubject of public conſumption, goes to its ſource, examines its nature and effects, follows it in all its branches, fixes its bounds and utility; and gives the true theory of taxation, diſcuſſes the different ſyſtems adopted by governments, and points out the advantages which might be drawn from indirect taxes, where they are kept within juſt bounds. Faithful to the principles which he lays down, and which direct him in his various reſearches, he condemns thoſe taxes which bear upon capitals, leſſing to others, which aſſume the name of loans, the excuſe only of neceſſity. He treats on the uſefulneſs of ſinking funds, and their beneficial effects on public credit, without which no government can undertake any object of great importance, and without which none can be of long duration. On theſe points our author leaves no queſtion without its proper ſolution; his proofs, his reaſoning, his ſtyle, and the noble independence of his ſentiments, lead us to regret that we cannot cite him more

at length. It is only by the perusal of his work that we can form a just idea of its value. We have seldom met with so many interesting and important truths laid down with so much clearness, strength, and eloquence: nor will it be carrying our approbation of this performance too far, to assert that M. Say has raised himself to the rank of the first writers on this subject.

ART. CXXXV. *A System of Chemistry. By Thomas Thomson, M.D.* 4 vols. 8vo. pp. 2638. Price 2*l.* 2*s.* Robinsons, London. 1804.

FEW scientific books have had a more rapid sale than the first edition of this work: in the short space of ten months, a large impression was, as the author informs us, sold off, and a new edition much wanted. The intrinsic merit of Dr. Thomson's compilation, even in its original state, was certainly considerable; the information it conveyed was more extensive than in any similar work, and the arrangement was agreeable to the habits and opinions of a considerable party among modern chemists. The success of the work seems to have had an effect on the mind of the author, which appears rather unsuitable to the cool and rational habits which ought to distinguish the man of science. His preface evidently shews, that he is more highly elated by the flattering attention of the public, than we should have expected, in one who has sufficiently proved himself to be possessed of a truly philosophical mind. In consequence, he treats the opinions of our brethren with contempt, and not only adheres to his original plan and arrangement, notwithstanding their censures, but also boldly pronounces, that, "in most cases at least, neither the vanity nor impatience of reviewers will admit them to bestow the same patient meditation on the plan of a work, as is bestowed by the author himself." If we concede to him the mere truth of this assertion, we yet find ourselves little disposed to yield the point he would deduce from it, viz. that without such laborious investigation, criticism cannot be exercised with success. Does Dr. Thomson, then, imagine, that the constant habit of comparing the plans and arrangement of different authors will not produce some of the advantages usually derived from continual exercise?

Because the objections which have been started against his plan may be resolved into two seemingly opposite assertions;

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1ſt, that it contains too much; 2dly, that it contains too little; he derives much ſelf-ſatisfaction from the reflection, that this appears to indicate that he has attained a proper medium. In this reflection, however, he has forgotten to conſider whether theſe different criticiſms did not relate to the different ſignifications of the word Chemiſtry. This ſcience may indeed be conſidered in two different ways: either as chemiſtry properly ſo called, which ſtrictly confines itſelf to the phenomena of heat and mixture; or as what is more properly termed chemical philoſophy, which, aſſuming a wider range, not only attempts to explain thoſe phenomena, but alſo to extend its empire through every kingdom of nature, and through moſt of the proceſſes of the arts. The work of Dr. T. is evidently meant for a ſyſtem of chemiſtry in the ſecond, or improper, ſenſe of the word. Having thus given, as it were, a wrong title to his book, he unavoidably laid himſelf open to much cenſure, from thoſe who adhere to the proper uſe of the word, and who are inclined to reſiſt the undue extenſion of its ſignification. On the other hand, ſome chemical philoſophers have extended their theories to ſeveral branches of knowledge, which are omitted in this work, as the theory of diſeaſes, &c.

The arrangement of this ſyſtem is another cauſe of exultation with the author. Notwithſtanding the objections which have been urged againſt it, he aſſures us, that "if his work poſſeſſes any ſuperiority over others, if it be more conſpicuous, or more complete, we muſt aſcribe it to the arrangement." This we totally deny. Nobody can entertain a higher opinion of the real merit of Dr. Thomſon's compilation than ourſelves, or more admire the copiouſneſs with which the ſeveral ſubjects are treated; but to the order in which they are brought forward, we are decidedly averſe.

Dr. Thomſon informs us, that he has beſtowed much pains in examining the arrangement of other authors; and aſſerts, that his own is "as analytical as poſſible, and altogether independent of hypotheſis." Here, either the author, or ourſelves, muſt be in an egregious error; for, to us, the work (eſpecially the firſt part, which contains the principles of chemiſtry) appears to be ſynthetical in its arrangement, and founded entirely upon hypotheſis. We are fully perſuaded of the preſent infant ſtate of chemiſtry; and we are moreover doubtful if ever it will be poſſible to attain any certainty in a ſcience ſo peculiarly complex, that every ſtep we take only brings freſh difficulties to our view, and ſhews us the error of our former reaſonings. With theſe ideas firmly fixed in our mind, how can we accede to an arrangement which, conſider-

ing in the first place certain bodies as being simple, proceeds gradually to treat of the various combinations of them, according to their supposed complexity of composition. Surely this is hypothetical, as well as synthetic.

Chemists had almost universally followed one method in delivering their science; they commenced their works with the general doctrines, and then treated of the particular history of the several subjects. The variations of the style of different periods, and the professional habits, or peculiar studies which marked the characters of the authors, induced indeed minute differences; yet were their systems all radically constructed on the same plan, a plan which is equally visible in the works of the earliest elementary authors that have been published, as in the modern works of Black and Gren. The arrangement they adopted is, in itself, perfectly analogous to that of the other sciences which treat of the history of nature.

The French philosophers (whose vanity was flattered by the apparent facility with which their hypothesis enabled them to explain the more common phenomena of chemistry, and whose ambition led them to overthrow all ancient and commonly received opinions) attempted a new mode of delivery assuming their hypotheses to be the true theory of chemical phenomena, or at least very nearly so, Lavoisier endeavoured to introduce the synthetic method of explanation. But we are surprised that Dr. Thomson, who is aware of the difficulties of these hypotheses, and who has himself most ably controverted Lavoisier's explanation of the phenomena of combustion (the main spring of the whole system), should nevertheless adopt the new plan of that school. And the more so, when we consider him as a professor of chemistry in a place where Dr. Black so lately pursued an opposite conduct, who, although he adopted the hypotheses of Lavoisier in their purest state, displayed the strength of his judgment in retaining the ancient arrangement.

Dr. T. commences with giving a definition of Chemistry: after some introductory observations, he says, "Chemistry is that science which treats of those changes in bodies which are not accompanied by sensible motions." Are not effervescences, detonations, deflagrations, not to mention combustion and phosphorescence, chemical phenomena? At any rate, however, the abstruseness of the above definition renders it unfit for the beginning of a systematical introduction to what we are to suppose an unknown science. Why every author is to exert his abilities in giving a new definition of chemistry, we do not know; and the practice is, in our opinion, to be reprehended. In point of simplicity and precision,

we know of no definition equal to Dr. Black's; which has alſo the advantage of being perfectly intelligible, even to the unlearned; and its general adoption would, in our opinion, ſave much labour and diſpute.

The ſame introductory chapter contains a ſlight ſketch of the hiſtory of chemiſtry; which, from its conciſeneſs, can afford the ſtudent but little information. We muſt, however, notice, that this information will be correct; nor is it diſgraced by thoſe calumnies againſt the alchemiſts, and other elder chemiſts, which have been repeated, almoſt without end, by the pharmaceutical chemiſts and their adherents. The hiſtory of chemiſtry is rendered ſtill ſhorter, by the method which the author has adopted, of giving a ſeparate account of the diſcovery of the ſeveral ſubſtances at the commencement of their chemical hiſtory. By this means the hiſtorical part, although really conſiderable, is frittered away, and becomes almoſt inviſible: and another conſiderable diſadvantage is, that we cannot form a connected idea of the ſtate of chemiſtry at any former period: we muſt confeſs, however, that the plan has ſome advantages. Dr. T. informs us, that he has been led to purſue this method, by conſidering that the facts will be eaſier remembered and better underſtood; and that we ſhall, at the ſame time, pay a juſt tribute of reſpect to the improvers of chemiſtry. The laſt object is equally obtained by the uſual plan: as to the ſecond, we do not ſee any great advantage, unleſs the hiſtory was placed at the end, inſtead of the beginning, of the ſeveral articles; ſince, even on the preſent plan, the ſubſtance, the hiſtory of which we are reading, is ſtill ſuppoſed to be unknown.

Inſtead of giving, in an appropriate place, an explanation of the apparatus, and of the terms of art, they are illuſtrated as they occur: of the propriety of this proceeding we are very doubtful. The apparatus of chemiſtry is very much neglected by Dr. T.; ſo that the ſtudent who wiſhes to exerciſe himſelf practically in chemiſtry, muſt of neceſſity have recourſe to other authors for inſtruction. This inattention to the practical part of the ſcience, is ſtill more viſible in the manner in which the ſimple ſubſtances are arranged; ſince, as we ſhall preſently ſhew, inſtead of beginning with the more known ſubſtances, and ſuch as have the greater reſemblance to things we are accuſtomed to ſee and handle, the author plunges at once into the more difficult part of the ſcience, and treats of oxygen, a ſubſtance which, from its aërial form, requires a complicated apparatus, to confine and weigh, and, of courſe, does not admit of being treated with that preciſion of which other ſubſtances are ſuſceptible.

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The work is divided into two parts: the firſt treats of the principles of chemiſtry; the ſecond, of the chemical inveſtigation of nature.

Oxygen, the idol of modern chemiſts, which acts the moſt conſiderable part in the hypotheſes and nomenclature of the French, is, as we have ſaid, the firſt ſubſtance treated of by the author. To begin with this elaſtic fluid, appears to us highly improper. We have already noticed its aërial form as one of our objections; to this we have to add, that we are told to extract it from the black oxide of manganeſe, a ſubſtance with which we are not brought acquainted by Dr. T. till page 244, or, to ſpeak more properly, vol. 4, page 112. In addition to this, both here and throughout the whole diviſion of conſinable bodies, or, as we ſhould rather call them, ponderable bodies, we are taught to look upon it as a ſimple body. In the next diviſion, we are required to change our faith; and either look upon it as a compound of two ingredients, with the author, or as a triple compound, with the French.

He next treats of the ſimple combuſtibles. In ſpeaking of carbon, he confounds the carbone of Lavoiſier with the diamond; and thus vitiates many of his ſubſequent calculations. In the chapter on hydrogen, he ſays, in a note;

"It ought never to be forgotten, that Newton had long before, with a ſagacity almoſt greater than human, conjectured, from the great refracting power of water, that it *contains a combuſtible ſubſtance.*" (p. 62.)

The merit of Sir Iſaac Newton is too firmly eſtabliſhed to need the artifice of miſrepreſentation to ſupport it. Dr. Robiſon has already noticed this error, in his edition of Black's Lectures. He ſays this aſſertion cannot be found in Newton's works; and takes notice that water poſſeſſes, in fact, a very ſmall degree of refractive power. To this we may add, that refraction and combuſtibility have but little dependence on each other; ſince both alcohol and ether, two of the moſt inflammable of liquids, are, in reſpect to refraction, very little ſuperior to water. (Wollaſton, *Philoſ. Tranſact.* 1802. p. 371.)

Under the next title, of ſimple incombuſtibles, Dr. T. includes only azote and muriatic acid. The reſemblance of the compounds formed by muriatic acid and oxygen, to thoſe formed by oxygen and azote, is very ſtriking; but we cannot think that the analogies by which the earths and fixed alkalies have been conſidered as compounds, are ſufficiently ſtrong to juſtify their removal to that diviſion.

Metals

Metals form the laſt diviſion of ſimple confinable bodies. To diſtinguiſh the ſeveral oxides which are formed from the ſame metal, Dr. T. has introduced ſeveral new terms; namely, *protoxide* for that which contains a minimum of oxygen; *deutoxide, tritoxide, tetoxide, pentoxide, hectoxide,* for the intermediate ſtates; and *peroxide* for that which has a maximum of oxygen. If our knowledge had reached its acme, or if we were certain that it would remain ſtationary, this numerical ſeries might be adopted: but, as this is not the caſe, we ſhould, by following this plan, quickly experience the ſame inconveniences as the aſtronomers have done in reſpect to the ſatellites of Saturn. Numbers are an excellent medium to expreſs the order of diſcovery, but they are totally inapplicable to a ſyſtematic arrangement. In p. 142, Dr. T. ſtates our ſilver coin as containing one part of copper, and 15 of ſilver; but the real quantity of the latter metal is only 11 parts. This is but a ſmall error compared with that in p. 151, where Prouſt is quoted as authority for the aſſertion, that ſulphuret of iron contains 60 parts of ſulphur in the 100; whereas, the fact is, that he ſays ſulphuret of iron is compoſed of 100 parts of iron united with 60 of ſulphur, and, of courſe, it contains only 37·5 of that combuſtible body in the 100. The component parts of the ſulphuret being wrongly ſtated, the proportion of ſulphur in the ſuperſulphuret is alſo erroneous. We ſuſpect this kind of miſtake is frequently made. As tin is more eaſily calcined when alloyed with lead, the common oxide of tin (the putty of the manufacturers) contains more of the latter than of the former metal. Of this property of that alloy Dr. T. takes no notice; although, in p. 186, he informs us, "that the alloy of two parts of lead and one of tin is more *ſoluble* than either of the metals ſeparately:" the next ſentence, however, ſhews this is merely an error of the preſs for *fuſible*. So in p. 196, towards the bottom, we have *in race ſua*, for *in radice ſua*.

The ſimple bodies, called by the author unconfinable, are then conſidered. As Dr. T. means to proſecute the ſubject of electricity in a ſeparate work, we have, of courſe, only the chemical hiſtories of light and caloric. That of caloric is very extenſive; and thoſe properties of that ſubtile fluid which relate to chemiſtry are treated with uncommon clearneſs. But the attempts at forming general rules, and connecting with each other the conducting power of ſubſtances; their affinity for caloric; and their rate of heating and cooling; ſeem to us very unhappy ſpeculations, and little warranted by the phenomena. In the table of ſpecific caloric, he has given, in many caſes, the numbers that reſult from the mean of thoſe given

given by different authors: a practice by which the fair fame of the accurate experimenter is liable to be injured, by his results being confounded with those of others.

In treating of the sources of caloric, the several theories of combustion are briefly explained. The difficulties respecting the origin of the heat and light which are emitted in that process, are also considered. The hypothesis of Lavoisier on this subject is clearly shewn to be insufficient; but Dr. T. allows, that the ingenious emendation of that hypothesis, by Brugnatelli, obviates this defect. Brugnatelli's explanation, however, is supported only by its conveniency; and its adoption is, we apprehend, more owing to a spirit of opposition to ancient opinions, than to a philosophical investigation of the phenomena of combustion. The author states, with unusual modesty and caution, his adherence to the phlogistic theory of Gren; and gives the following elegant analysis of it.

"All bodies in nature, as far as combustion is concerned, may be divided into three classes; namely, *supporters*, *combustibles*, and *incombustibles*.

"By *supporters* I mean substances which are not themselves, strictly speaking, capable of undergoing combustion; but their presence is absolutely necessary, in order that this process may take place. Combustibles and incombustibles require no definition.

"Oxygen gas is the only simple supporter known; but, when incombustible bodies are united to oxygen, they also become supporters. The only incombustible bodies which possess this property are azote and muriatic acid.* It was this singularity which induced me to separate these two substances from all the rest, and place them among the simple bodies. The first of these bodies unites with four doses of oxygen, the second with two. Thus we have one simple supporter and six compound; namely, 1. Oxygen gas; 2. Air; 3. Nitrous oxide; 4. Nitric oxide (nitrous gas); 5. Nitric acid; 6. Oxymuriatic acid; 7. Hyperoxymuriatic acid.

"The combustibles are of three kinds; namely, simple, compound, and oxides. The simple are the four simple combustibles (sulphur, phosphorus, carbon, hydrogen), and the whole, or at least almost the whole, of the metals. The compound are the various bodies formed by the union of these simple substances with each other; most of which are denominated by terms ending in *uret*, as the sulphurets, phosphurets, carburets, &c.; and also the alloys, and some other compounds which will be described hereafter. The combustible oxides consist of combinations of the combustible bodies, or their compounds with oxygen, without undergoing combustion.

"* Perhaps mercury might be added to this list. I have failed in all my attempts to cause it to undergo combustion."

buſtion. They are very numerous, conſtituting the greater part of animal and vegetable ſubſtances.

"During combuſtion, the oxygen of the ſupporter always unites with the combuſtible, and forms with it a new ſubſtance, which I ſhall call a *product* of combuſtion. Hence the reaſon of the change which combuſtibles undergo by combuſtion, as has been ſufficiently demonſtrated by Lavoiſier. Now it deſerves attention, that every product is always one or other of the three following ſubſtances; 1. Water; 2. An acid; 3. A metallic oxide.

"Some of the products of combuſtion are capable of combining with an additional doſe of oxygen; but this combination is never attended with the phenomena of combuſtion, and the product, by means of it, is converted into a *ſupporter*. This is the caſe with ſeveral of the metallic oxides. Such compounds may be called *partial ſupporters*, as it is only to a part of the oxygen which they contain that they owe that property. The following oxides are partial ſupporters: 1. Peroxide of gold; 2. Peroxide of ſilver; 3. Red oxide of mercury; 4. Peroxide of mercury; 5. Peroxide of iron; 6. Red and brown oxides of lead; 7. Peroxide of manganeſe. Theſe bodies, however, never attract oxygen, except from ſupporters.

"Since oxygen is capable of ſupporting combuſtion only when in the ſupporters and partial ſupporters, it cannot be doubted that it is in a different ſtate in theſe bodies from the ſtate in which it exiſts in other bodies. Now, as light and heat are always emitted during combuſtion, but never when oxygen combines without combuſtion, it is natural to ſuppoſe that the oxygen of ſupporters contains either the one or the other of theſe bodies, or both of them; while the oxygen of other bodies wants them altogether. I am diſpoſed to believe that the oxygen of ſupporters contains only caloric, while that body in other caſes is wanting, or at leaſt not preſent in ſufficient quantity. My reaſon for this opinion is, that the caloric which is evolved during combuſtion is always proportional to the quantity of oxygen which combines with the burning body; but this is by no means the caſe with reſpect to light. Thus hydrogen combines with more oxygen than any other body; and it is now known, that the heat produced by the combuſtion of hydrogen is greater than can be produced by any other method; yet the light is barely perceptible.——That the light exiſts combined with the combuſtible, will appear exceedingly probable, if we recollect that the quantity which appears during combuſtion depends altogether upon the combuſtible. Phoſphorus emits a vaſt quantity, charcoal a ſmaller, and hydrogen the ſmalleſt of all; yet the quantity of oxygen which combines with the combuſtible during theſe proceſſes, is greateſt in thoſe caſes where the light is ſmalleſt. Beſides, the colour of the light depends in all caſes upon the combuſtible that burns; a circumſtance which could ſcarcely be ſuppoſed to take place, unleſs the light were ſeparated from the combuſtible. It is well known, too, that when vegetables are made to grow in the dark, no combuſtible ſubſtances are formed in them; the

the preſence of light being abſolutely neceſſary for the formation of theſe ſubſtances. Theſe facts, and ſeveral others which might be enumerated, give a conſiderable degree of probability to the opinion, that light conſtitutes a component part of all combuſtible ſubſtances; but they by no means amount to a deciſive proof: nor, indeed, would it be eaſy to anſwer all the objections which might be ſtarted againſt this opinion.

"Were we to ſuppoſe that the oxygen of ſupporters contains caloric as a component part, while combuſtibles contain light, it would not be difficult to explain what takes place during combuſtion. The component parts of the oxygen of ſupporters are two; namely, 1. A baſe; 2. Caloric. The component parts of combuſtibles are likewiſe two; namely, 1. A baſe; 2. Light. During combuſtion, the baſe of the oxygen combines with the baſe of the combuſtible, and forms the product; while at the ſame time the caloric of the oxygen combines with the light of the combuſtible, and the compound flies off in the form of fire. Thus combuſtion is a double decompoſition; the oxygen and combuſtible divide themſelves each into two portions, which combine in pairs; the one compound is the product, and the other the fire which eſcapes.

"Hence the reaſon that the oxygen of products is unfit for combuſtion; it wants its caloric. Hence the reaſon that combuſtion does not take place when oxygen combines with products, or with the baſe of ſupporters; theſe bodies contain no light: the caloric of the oxygen, of courſe, is not ſeparated, and no fire appears. And this oxygen, ſtill retaining its caloric, is capable of producing combuſtion whenever a body is preſented which contains light, and whoſe baſe has an affinity for oxygen. Hence alſo the reaſon why a combuſtible alone can reſtore combuſtibility to the baſe of a product. In all ſuch caſes, a double decompoſition takes place. The oxygen of the product combines with the baſe of the combuſtible, while the light of the combuſtible combines with the baſe of the product.

"But the application of this theory to the phenomena of combuſtion is ſo obvious, that it requires no particular explanation. It enables us to explain, with equal facility, ſome curious phenomena which occur during the formation of the ſulphurets and phoſphurets. Sulphur and phoſphorus combine with the metals, and with ſome of the earths. The combination is not formed without the aſſiſtance of heat. This melts the ſulphur and phoſphorus. At the inſtant of their combination with the metallic or earthy baſes, the compound becomes ſolid, and at the ſame time ſuddenly acquires a ſtrong red heat, which continues for ſome time. In this caſe the ſulphur and phoſphorus act the part of a ſupporter; for they are melted, and therefore contain a great deal of caloric: the metal, or earth, acts the part of a combuſtible; for both contain light as a component part. The inſtant of combination, the ſulphur or phoſphorus combines with the metal or earth; while the caloric of the one, uniting to the light of the other, flies off in the form of fire.

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This proceſs, therefore, may be called *ſemi-combuſtion*, indicating by the term that it poſſeſſes preciſely one half of the characteriſtic marks of combuſtion." (Vol. i. p. 436.)

This expoſition of the German theory of combuſtion is more comprehenſive and more clear than any we have ſeen. It marks the great ſkill of the author, in arranging and explaining the obſervations and opinions of his predeceſſors. The heat which is produced by mixture, is attributed almoſt excluſively to the action of water; even that which is extricated by the union of aëriform fluids, is explained as being principally due to the water they contain. To this explanation we cannot accede. The ſources of caloric are amply explained; but of the means of applying it, not a ſingle word is ſaid: this ſtrikes us the more forcibly, as chemiſts were formerly inclined to a contrary proceeding, and were too apt to crowd their works with long deſcriptions of furnaces. The importance of the ſubject to the practice of chemiſtry ſurely required that ſome notice ſhould have been taken of them, and of their faſhionable ſubſtitutes, the various kinds of lamps.

After ſome general reflections on the ſimple bodies, Dr. T. paſſes to the conſideration of the compound bodies. Theſe he divides into five diviſions; viz. alkalies, earths, oxides, acids, and compound combuſtibles. Many objections might be raiſed againſt claſſing ammonia with the fixed alkalies. Lime is ſaid to be cryſtallizable; but Berthollet affirms, that the cryſtals obtained by Tromſdorff's proceſs are ſubmuriate of lime. In treating of the oxides of carbone, Dr. T. controverts Berthollet's opinions reſpecting them; yet in vol. ii. p. 265, he allows that analogy is ſtrongly in favour of the hypotheſis of that celebrated philoſopher. The acids are now divided into three claſſes; 1. Acid products; 2. Acid ſupporters; 3. Combuſtible acids.—Of the oxymuriatic acid he remarks:

"Though oxymuriatic acid has hitherto been placed among acids by chemiſts, it does not poſſeſs a ſingle property which characteriſes that claſs of bodies. Its taſte is not acid, but aſtringent; it does not convert vegetable blues to red, but deſtroys them; it combines very ſparingly with water, and is incapable of combining with alkalies, earths, or metallic oxides. It ought therefore to be placed among the oxides, rather than the acids." (Vol. ii. p. 92.)

In this opinion we perfectly agree with the author. The next chapter, on compound combuſtibles, is peculiarly defective, as he treats only of thoſe which are employed as inſtruments of inveſtigation; viz. the oils, alcohol, ether, and tan,

tan. The other proximate principles of animals and vegetables are not conſidered in this part of the work. Dr. T. then proceeds to treat on the ſecondary compounds, arranging them in five claſſes; viz. combinations of the earths; glaſs; ſalts; hydroſulphurets; and ſoaps. The alkaline and earthy ſalts are arranged according to the acids; and the genera are divided into two orders,—incombuſtible and combuſtible ſalts. The third diviſion of the firſt order, viz. nitrats, hyperoxymuriats, and the ſalts formed by the metallic acids, (being ſupporters of combuſtion,) ſhould have formed a third order. The phoſphats are put among thoſe which are decompoſed without combuſtion, when heated with combuſtibles; which is erroneous. In the metallic ſalts, the metal forms the baſis by which they are claſſed. The ſalts formed by each metal are divided into five ſubdiviſions; 1. Detonating ſalts; 2. Salts formed by the incombuſtible acids; 3. By the combuſtible acids; 4. By the metallic acids: and laſtly, 5. Triple ſalts, which contain alſo an alkali, or an earth. By thus taking two principles of diviſion (the properties and the compoſition), he has unneceſſarily confuſed them. To diſtinguiſh the different proportion of oxygen in the metallic oxides contained in theſe ſalts, Dr. T. uſes, but certainly very improperly, the prefix *oxy* to the name of the acid, in that which has the greateſt proportion of oxygen in the oxide, as muriat of iron, oxymuriat of iron. As the ſame prefix is uſed among the acids, it may occaſion a confuſion; and, at any rate, it ſeems abſurd to expreſs an alteration in the oxide by an alteration in the name of the acid. The prefix is ſometimes varied; as, acetat, oxacetat, arſeniat, oxarſeniat: a ſtill greater variation is ſeen in oxalat of iron; that formed by the red oxide being called oxygenized oxalat of iron. When theſe varieties take place in metallic ſalts, Bergmann's names are uſed for the general title of the ſpecies, as oxalated iron, muriated iron: indeed, as the genera are formed from the metals, this would have been the proper method in all the ſpecies. The hiſtory of the ſalts is very full and complete, and exhibits a more connected view of them than is, we believe, to be found in any other work on the ſcience.

Dr. T. retains the name hydroſulphuret, yet owns that Chenevix's term is more proper; his reaſon, he ſays, is becauſe hydroſulphuret is now well known, and has been in uſe ſome time. We do not ſee how this obſervation agrees with his general readineſs to adopt new names, even in caſes where we think there is leſs reaſon for it. In the tables of the proportion of ſulphur in the ſeveral ſulphurets, vol. iii. pp. 145, 146, the

error

error we have already noticed reſpecting ſulphuret of iron is repeated.

In his remarks on the ſecondary compounds, Dr. T. is very unfortunate. He ſays, none of them are combuſtible; although by his own claſſification they contain a whole order of combuſtible earthy and alkaline ſalts, beſides numerous combuſtible metallic ſalts, to ſay nothing of the claſs of ſoaps!

The author then proceeds to treat of the powers which occaſion the combinations of bodies. With a view of generaliſing this power, he includes both, coheſion and cryſtallization under the title of homogeneous affinity, combination being called heterogeneous affinity. By ſo doing, he confounds together what has always been conſidered as perfectly ſeparate. A conciſe explanation of Häuy's theory of cryſtallization is inſerted, equally elegant as that of the German theory of combuſtion. Berthollet's improvements in the theory of chemical attraction are ſtated with equal clearneſs. We obſerve, however, a too great fondneſs for algebraic expreſſions, when plain language would have been far more clear. To many chemiſts, much of this part of the work will be unintelligible: but, for their conſolation, we can inform them, that they will not be great loſers; as theſe ſubtle ſpeculations of Boſcovich and the author are not only entirely foreign to the ſcience, but even highly detrimental, as they tend to draw the attention of the chemiſt from the true path of experience. From Dr. T.'s expreſſions in vol iii. p. 244, we may infer, that aëriform fluids can only unite in one proportion; yet, in p. 242. he has mentioned ſeveral different combinations of azote and oxygen. So alſo, he ſtates, p. 244, that bodies which combine only in certain determinate proportions between the maximum and minimum, or only in the proportions which conſtitute the maximum and minimum, have an elaſtic fluid for one of their ingredients. Several of the ſalts are contrary to this aſſertion: The author himſelf, only a few pages before, has mentioned the caſe of the tartrite and ſupertartrite of potaſh*.

The chemical examination of nature, which takes up part of the third and all the fourth volume, contains much matter which can ſcarcely be conſidered as belonging to chemiſtry. The atmoſphere is firſt treated of, and its compoſition inveſtigated. A complete treatiſe of meteorology ſucceeds, in which little of chemiſtry appears: but the treatiſe on waters contains a good

* We cannot prevail upon ourſelves to uſe the vile Anglo-Gallic word *potaſs*, adopted by Dr. T.

a good account of Kirwan's method of analyſing the mineral kinds. Minerals themſelves follow; the external characters of Werner are firſt explained; but Kirwan's method of denoting hardneſs by numbers is adopted in preference. Only the numbers as high as ten are explained, vol. i. p. 106; yet, in the deſcriptions of minerals, they run as high as twenty. Although the author generally follows Werner, yet, in the order of earthy ſtones, he entirely leaves him, and follows Bergmann. By thus adopting another ſyſtem for the arrangement of the latter, their genera are ſingularly at variance with thoſe of the other minerals. To this great defect we may add, that the ſpecies very ſeldom agree with the character of the genus: for example; in Genus VII. SAL. or combinations of ſilica, alumina, and iron, only obſidian anſwers to the definition, as mica and hornblende contain alſo magneſia and lime, to which, in talc, is added water. Geology is treated at conſiderable length, in a chapter "of compound minerals;" yet, many of the rocks are eſſentially ſimple. In ſpeaking of the analyſis of minerals, vol. iv. p. 159, it is ſaid that the ſilica which is ſeparated ought to be "entirely ſoluble" in acids; this is probably an error of the preſs for *inſoluble*.

The author has much enlarged that part of his work which treats of vegetables. This branch of the ſcience is far behind that of mineralogy; but the attention which is now paid to it by the moſt celebrated chemiſts, will no doubt cauſe it to aſſume a very different aſpect in a few years. A great deſideratum in this, as well as in the chemiſtry of the animal kingdom, is the want of ſome general rules for analyſing them. As Dr. T. appears ſenſible of this defect in their chemical hiſtory, we are ſurprized he did not attempt to remove it. The phenomena of vegetation, which are treated at great length, can ſcarcely be ſaid to belong to Chemiſtry. In the next chapter we are told, that beer is made of one third of malt, and two thirds of crude barley: in England, this is by no means true.

The chemiſtry of animals is treated with equal copiouſneſs as the chemiſtry of vegetables; but the chapter, "Of the Functions of Animals," we cannot conſider in any other light than as an excreſcence.

An appendix is given of a few articles which were diſcovered during the printing of the work. Although Dr. T. could not ſucceed in repeating Chenevix's proceſs for making palladium, he gives credit to its artificial formation. The index is by far too conciſe for the multiplicity of ſubjects. The author pays little attention to the ſpelling of foreign names, although this inattention may ſometimes lead to error: thus, we have Weſtrum,

trum, Humbold, Margraf, for Weſtrumb, Humboldt, Marggraf; ſo alſo, Erneſt Stahl, for George Erneſt Stahl.

The preſent edition is greatly improved, and we have no doubt but its ſucceſs will be equal to that of the former. Of ſo uſeful a book, other editions will probably be wanted: ſhould that be the caſe, we recommend to Dr. T. to reſtrain his propenſity to introduce general reflections without ſufficient conſideration; to cancel his algebraic ſymbols; and to pay more attention to the correctneſs of his numbers, which can ſeldom be truſted. Notwithſtanding this great fault, we can truly ſay, that a ſtudent will, in no other work, find ſo large a collection of chemical facts brought into the ſame compaſs.

We have juſt ſeen an anſwer, by Dr. Thomſon, to the ſtrictures of the Edinburgh Review on his ſyſtem. As, on examination, ſeveral of thoſe ſtrictures are nearly ſimilar to our own, the anſwer, in ſome meaſure, applies to us. We can only ſay, that we ſee no reaſon whatever to recal any of our obſervations. In reſpect to the arrangement of his work, Dr. T. endeavours to juſtify himſelf by the example of Dr Black: but the lectures of the latter, as publiſhed by Profeſſor Robiſon, commence with the more general doctrines of chemiſtry; and the author afterwards proceeds to treat of the particular doctrines. In the latter, he begins with the alkaline carbonates (which are ſecondary compounds), and does not treat of their elements till ſome time after.

The Edinburgh critics having ſeverely criticiſed the author for the incorrectneſs of his figures, we certainly expected Dr. T. would have avoided this fault in his anſwer. This is, however, by no means the caſe. In correcting the errors which he allows are to be found in his work (the moſt material of which we have noticed) he commits ſeveral miſtakes. We paſs over his deſiring us to correct an error in p. 143 of vol. i. which occurs in p. 142; and another in p. 352, without noticing that there are at that part two leaves paged alike. He then ſays, "In page 230 of the ſame volume, line 2 from bottom, for 4.8 read 4.6." The ſubject there treated of is, the alloy of cobalt with lead, whoſe ſpecific gravity is ſaid to be 8.12, to which the correction will not apply; yet theſe figures are the only ones in the page; and, as the author gives no other information reſpecting the paſſage to be corrected, we know not what to make of it. Upon the whole, theſe remarks confirm the very unfavourable opinion we could not help forming reſpecting Dr. T.'s want of accuracy: yet, ſurely, there is no

kind of writing in which accuracy is more essentially necessary than in the history of nature, as the context will very rarely afford any assistance.

CXXXVI. *The British Museum; or Elegant Repository of Natural History. By William Holloway, and John Branch, A. M.* 4 vols. pp. about 960; price 1*l.* 8*s.* Badcock, London, 1803.

IN the preface to these volumes, more is professed than the execution of the work will warrant. It has not by any means the claim to be considered as a "Complete work on Natural History." In the title-page we have the names of two Gentlemen, who, it is presumed, are responsible as the authors, or editors: but in the preface to the first volume, it is said, "If the British Museum be not patronised as a national work by the British nation, it will neither be the fault of the *editor*, printer, or publisher, nor of the artists employed in the various departments." And in a second preface another character is introduced, under the title of *proprietor*, who tells us for what the work is indebted to him, and through him to Mr. Peake, "whereby he has been enabled to finish the most difficult part of the undertaking, with an enviable degree of accuracy in the description, designs, and beauty of colouring." We have thought it our duty to notice these accounts, not indeed as specimens of superior modesty, but that the public may be aware to how many persons they are indebted for this compilation: for, in truth, it is a compilation; and to young persons it will be found a very entertaining one.

If amusement and anecdote were the principal and prominent parts of Natural History, the authors, editor, and proprietor, might carry their claims to a considerable extent. But we confess that we have been disappointed; for, in a "complete work on natural history," we expected much more scientific information than these volumes can pretend to, and which might have been conveyed without running into dry and abstruse discussions. Our objections, however, to the "British Museum," are not so much on account of what it does, or does not contain, as on account of the boasted professions made in the outset of the work. These may mislead the young, who will think that they understand "Natural History" as a science, when they have read the volumes now before us; whereas they are devoid of that systematic arrangement and order which are essential to the proper study of this interesting subject.

Having offered these hints as cautions to the unwary, we shall lay before our readers the plan adopted in this work, which is by no means destitute of merit, and which in the execution will be found to combine much instruction and

amuſement, adapted to thoſe perſons who will be glad to know the manner of life, and the habits of different animals, without the trouble of ſcientific ſtudies. As an inſtance, we take the firſt article in the book:—the LION.

This animal, we are told, is the emblem of regality in general, and of the Britiſh power in particular: he is of the feline kind; a native of the torrid zone; and he degenerates in ſize and courage, in proportion to his removal from the hotter climates. As illuſtrative of the terror which the lion is capable of inſpiring, a paſſage is quoted from the poet Collins. His make and ſtructure are next deſcribed; and we are told,

"That when rouſed, the lion erects his dreadful mane, all the vaſt muſcles of his face ſwell to an aſtoniſhing ſize, and his tail, which is long, and tipped with a heavy tuft of hair, moves with ſuch force and rapidity, that a ſingle ſtroke of it would throw the moſt athletic man to the ground. His ears are ſhort and round, but his olfactory nerves are ſaid to be leſs perfect than thoſe of moſt other animals; a circumſtance often very favourable to travellers, and of which we have a ſtriking inſtance in modern narrative.

"Mr. Park, in his Travels into the Interior of Africa, relates, that on paſſing through a deſert, he one day obſerved a huge lion ſtretched on the ſand, repoſing his bearded chin on his broad extended paws, and with his eyes hardly cloſed, dozing in the burning ſun; at which perilous criſis, he had, however, the preſence of mind to turn aſide, and ſteal ſoftly behind the buſhes in his rear, by which means he providentially effected his retreat; which in all human probability could hardly have been the caſe, had this tremendous monſter been poſſeſſed of that acute ſenſe of ſmelling, not only peculiar to the dog, but many other quadrupeds."

We have now a deſcription of the manner in which the Lion takes his prey; of the different tones of his voice; and of the methods made uſe of to capture him. Some popular and very ancient opinions reſpecting this animal are noticed, and contradicted; and the ſtory of Androcles, from the Guardian, is given in an abridged ſtate.

Under the article "*Newfoundland dog*," the authority of Pope is referred to, and one of his excellent paſſages of poetry quoted, to ſhew in what eſtimation the dog has in almoſt all places been held. The ſagacity and attachment of the ſpaniel are characterized by a beautiful poem of the late Mr. Cowper. To the ſame excellent poet our authors are indebted for the manners and habits of domeſticated hares. Mr. Cowper's epitaph for his hares is inſerted at length. The aid of our untaught poet, Bloomfield, and others, is called in to deſcribe the peculiarities of the ſheep.

In the account of the vampyre, which is ſaid to be able to ſuck the blood from a perſon while ſleeping, without occaſioning ſo much pain as to awaken him, we have the following fact:

"Captain Steadman, during his expedition to Surinam, awaking early one morning, was exceedingly alarmed on finding his hammock ſteeped almoſt through, and himſelf weltering in congealed blood, but inſenſible of any degree of pain. Having ſtarted up, and rung for the ſurgeon, he appeared like a ſpectre, with a pale and hagged countenance, and his linen drenched in gore. The myſtery was ſoon cleared up, by the diſcovery that the patient had been bitten by the vampyre.

"This animal (adds our voyager) is frequently known to ſuck the blood from men and cattle, while they are aſleep, even till they die. Knowing that the perſon they are about to attack is in a profound ſlumber, they generally alight near the feet, where, while the creature continues fanning with his wings, which keeps one cool, he bites a piece out of the tip of the great toe, ſo very ſmall indeed, that the head of a pin could ſcarcely be introduced into the wound; yet through this orifice he continues to ſuck the blood, until he is obliged to diſgorge. He then begins again, and thus continues ſucking and diſgorging till he is ſcarcely able to fly, and the ſufferer has often been known to ſleep from time into eternity. Cattle they generally bite in the ear, but always where the blood flows ſpontaneouſly."

The love of anecdote which pervades theſe volumes, has perhaps led our authors to give credit to ſome ſtories, which do not ſtand on authenticated teſtimony: ſuch is that which deſcribes Baptiſta Porta "roaſting a gooſe alive, and eating it limb by limb, while the heart ſtill continued to palpitate." We could refer to ſeveral other circumſtances, which are gravely recorded as facts, but which we are certain cannot be relied on as naked truths: and in a work which will principally be read by young perſons, more caution in this reſpect ſhould have been adopted.

We might introduce intereſting paſſages from almoſt any part of the four volumes, but they are probably familiar to our readers who are converſant in ſubjects of this kind, having been noticed by other writers; we ſhall therefore tranſcribe only the laſt, for which our authors are indebted to Smellie, the author of the Philoſophy of Natural Hiſtory.

"When I was a boy," ſays he, "I carried off a neſt of young ſparrows, about a mile from my place of reſidence. After the neſt was completely removed, and while I was marching home with them in triumph, I perceived, with ſome degree of aſtoniſhment, both parents following me at a diſtance. A thought then ſtruck me that they might follow me home, and feed the young according to their uſual manner. When juſt entering the door, I held up the neſt, and made the young utter the cry which is expreſſive of the deſire of food. I immediately put the neſt and the young in the corner of a wire cage, and placed it on the outſide of a window. I choſe a ſituation in the room where I could perceive all that might happen without being myſelf ſeen. The young animals

ſoon

soon cried for food. In a short time both parents, having their bills filled with small caterpillars, came to the cage, and after chattering a little, as we would do with a friend through the lattice of a prison, gave a small worm to each. This parental intercourse continued regularly for some time, till the young were completely fledged, and had acquired a considerable degree of strength. I then took one of the strongest of them, and placed him on the outside of the cage, in order to observe the conduct of the parents after one of their offspring was emancipated. In a few minutes both parents arrived, loaded as usual with food. They no sooner perceived that one of their children had escaped from prison, than they fluttered about and made a thousand noisy demonstrations of joy with their wings and their voices. These tumultuous expressions of unexpected happiness at last gave place to a more calm and soothing conversation. By their voices and their movements, it was evident that they earnestly intreated him to follow them, and to fly from his present dangerous state. He seemed to be impatient to obey their mandates, but by his gestures, and the feeble sounds he uttered, he plainly expressed that he was afraid to try an exertion he had never before attempted. They, however, incessantly repeated their solicitations; by flying alternately from their cage to a neighbouring chimney-top, they endeavoured to shew him how easily the journey was to be accomplished. He at last committed himself to the air, and alighted in safety. Upon his arrival, another scene of clamorous and active joy was exhibited. Next day I repeated the same experiment, by exposing another of the young on the top of the cage. I observed the same conduct with the remainder of the brood, which consisted of four. I need hardly add, that not one, either of the parents or children, ever afterwards revisited the execrated cage."

These volumes, two of which are devoted to quadrupeds, the third to fishes and insects, and the fourth to birds, are ornamented with a large number of coloured plates, of which some are very well done, but others certainly do not, by any means, give a forcible idea of the animals they are intended to represent. In many parts, also, the style is very defective.

CXXXVII. *An Accurate Account of the Fall of the Republic of Venice, and of the Circumstances attending that Event: in which, the French System of undermining and revolutionizing States is exposed, and the true Character of Buonaparté faithfully pourtrayed. Translated from the original Italian.* 8vo. pp. 287; price 5*s*.

SOME of the early chapters of this volume contain an abridged history of the republic of Venice, from its rise, in the fourth century, to the commencement of the French revolution. As the whole of this part is compressed into a few pages, the account is of course scanty; and to those who look

for the cauſes of events, it will be found unſatisfactory. It was not, however, the object of the author to be the hiſtorian of the republic, but the narrator of thoſe events which led to its ſubjugation to a foreign power, and to a complete annihilation of its conſequence as a ſeparate and independent ſtate. Perhaps the time is not yet come, in which a full and impartial hiſtory can be expected of the various revolutions which have reſulted in other ſtates as a conſequence of the deſtruction of the French monarchy. The author of the work before us has probably done as much as circumſtances would permit: and the character which he has drawn of the preſent Emperor of the French will, we truſt, be ſufficient to guard every other independent power from ſupplicating his aſſiſtance, or from crouching to his dominion. If there be among ourſelves any ſons ſo degenerate as to entertain a ſingle doubt reſpecting the dire conſequences of a ſucceſsful invaſion of theſe iſlands, to ſuch we recommend the "Account of the Fall of the Republic of Venice." The conduct of Buonaparté towards the Venetians, when he ordered them to *diſarm*, may ſerve as a ſpecimen of his other outrages committed againſt a people, who either were, or thought they were, unable to defend themſelves.

"In the faſti of this republic, the 15th of April, which happened to be Eaſter Sunday, will ever form a memorable epocha. On that day a full council was obliged to be unexpectedly called; for an aid-de-camp of General Buonaparté, Junot, wiſhed to preſent himſelf to it. A ſingle individual commanded the coloſſus of fourteen centuries. Delay was, however, requeſted for calling this extraordinary meeting. It was ſtated, that, on this feſtival the moſt auguſt myſteries of the eſtabliſhed religion being celebrated, and the pious cuſtoms of their anceſtors requiring that all the magiſtrates of the republic ſhould be preſent, their ſudden abſence, and ſo great a deſertion of the national rites and ceremonies, would cauſe a diſturbance in the capital, and ſcandalize and enrage the people. Prayers, arguments, every motive was employed, but in vain. On theſe remonſtrances the hoſtile and deſigning Frenchman became infuriated, and, breaking out with implacable rage, declared, that he had orders inſtantly to read to the doge, in full council, a letter from his commander in chief, or immediately, in caſe of refuſal, to declare war againſt the republic. It therefore became neceſſary to yield to his inflexible brutality; and the letter was agreed to be heard previous to the ſacred functions. It is impoſſible to offend men more than by ſlighting their ancient cuſtoms. To endeavour to oppreſs them may be ſometimes a proof of eſteeming them, but to outrage their national uſages is always a mark of extreme contempt.

"The fathers, being now aſſembled in council, waited with palpitating hearts for this meſſenger of adverſe fortune. A low mur-

mur,

mur, a ſtifled whiſper, ſhowed the general agitation of the ſenators. The doge remained tranquil, and moved his hand to command ſilence. Junot entered, full of arrogance, and with an air of contempt flung himſelf into a ſeat. After a few minutes he ſtarted up, threw his hat on the ground, and read in a loud voice a letter from Buonaparté, addreſſed to the doge, as the peculiar repreſentative of the republic. Its arrogant ſtyle correſponded with the inſolence of its demands. The Venetians were there accuſed, with the moſt inſulting abuſe, of having cauſed the people to take up arms againſt the French, and war was vehemently denounced, if they did not immediately diſarm and diſband their troops. Bewailing the tarniſhed honour of the republic, the viciſſitudes of life, and the fate of humanity, the doge replied in few words, amid the ſilent ſenators, depreſſed by all theſe calumnies, theſe inſults, and theſe approaching misfortunes. This unparalleled effrontery on the one part, this abject humiliation on the other, is, perhaps, the moſt revolting ſpectacle which the fall of Venice preſents. And theſe unjuſt accuſations, theſe hoſtile menaces, were ſuffered without any expreſſion of diſdain! My blood boils within me, when I reflect on ſo much degeneracy and weakneſs. In this ſavage manner did Buonaparté treat independent ſovereigns, neutral and friendly powers. Such was the reverence he paid to the majeſty of government, and the inviolability of nations!"

ART. CXXXVIII. *Travellers in Switzerland. By E. F. Lantier. Comprizing Deſcriptions of the romantic Scenery of Switzerland; with Anecdotes of the principal Literary Characters reſident in that Country and France. From the French, by Frederic Schobere.* 6 vols. pp. about 1500. Price 1*l.* 4*s.* boards. Badcock.

THESE Travellers are two fugitive lovers, compelled by parental tyranny to take refuge in the romantic regions of Switzerland. To beguile the weary hours of exile, Blanche and Adolphe explore the awful ſolitudes and pictureſque habitations of this intereſting country, ſo often the ſanctuary of genius, ſo long the aſylum of liberty. With the lively ſenſibilities of youth, a cultivated imagination, and a correct taſte, Blanche and Adolphe are travelling guides the moſt agreeable and ſeductive. With them we have wandered amid the enchanted rocks of Meillerie, and the rude mountainous diſtricts of the Valais. We have penetrated to the hyperborean wilds of Mont Blanc, muſed over the attic ſhades of Ferney, and repoſed in the delicious retirement of Lauſanne. In theſe letters, it has obviouſly been the object of M. Lantier to preſent not merely topographical but picturesque delineations of Alpine ſcenery;—not a traveller's vade-mecum, of which the firſt recommendation is accuracy; nor a travelling chart ſufficiently

ciently compendious to superſede the claims of other touriſts: on the contrary, he has made a judicious ſelection of Helvetic landſcapes, which will moſt gratify thoſe who are familiar with the country from whence they are taken. Aware of the penury of mere local deſcription, and of the feeble intereſt produced by ſcenery unaſſociated with ſentiment, M. Lantier has introduced individuals who infuſe into his pictures a living ſoul, and who almoſt perſuade us that we participate in their emotions for the ſublime and beautiful objects of Nature.

As a ſpecimen of the general ſtyle and execution of the work, we ſubjoin the following extracts from a letter of Adolphe, deſcriptive of his tour through the Valais:

"Leuch, which is honoured with the appellation of a town, is only a maſs of black ſmoky huts, reſembling the abode of the Cyclops rather than a town; it is ſituated to the left of the Rhone as you proceed towards the ſource of that river. The adjacent country abounds in excellent paſturage; there are likewiſe ſome vineyards; and it has a bridge upon which we croſſed the river. We ſtopped in the middle of it, to ſurvey its courſe amidſt hills and mountains, which ſucceed each other till they are loſt in the diſtance. There cannot be a view more varied,—more beautiful,—more picturesque: it is not only the hand of Man that renders this country ſo charming,—ſo romantic; Nature there diſplays all her luxury,—all her magnificence, and inceſſantly exhibits the moſt ſtriking contraſts: to the Eaſt appear the flowers of ſpring, to the South the fruits of autumn, to the North the icy domain of winter;—in a word, on the ſame ſpot, and at the ſame inſtant, all the ſeaſons, and every climate. Add to this, the optical illuſion ariſing from the chiaro oſcuro of ſunſhine and ſhade, and all the accidental diſpoſitions of light in the morning and evening. Leaving this ſuperb ſcenery, we entered the valley of Anniviers, where, inſtead of precipices and rocks, we found a charming baſon; neat hamlets diſperſed and ranged one above the other on the declivity of the hills. Here you ſee wild and cultivated nature combined: by the ſide of a cavern you find a houſe, and vines diſplay their verdure on a ſoil where you expected nothing but briars. The numerous habitations in this valley are of wood: ſome individuals have four, and ſometimes five, upon their lands. Like the antient Roman ſenators, they have their ſpring, ſummer, and winter palace. Their houſes are clean and commodious: each has a ſtone furnace, which is an excellent contrivance, preſerving the heat without any prejudicial quality, and ſupporting the moſt intenſe degree of it. The valley of Anniviers was formerly the retreat of the Huns and Alans. Theſe people are very different, at the preſent day, from their anceſtors: they are kind, religious, benevolent, and ſo hoſpitable, that when a relation or friend pays them a viſit, they invite all their neighbours to participate in their joy and pleaſure: however, they have preſerved ſome traces of their primitive manners, as the fondneſs of changing their habitations, like Nomadic nations; and this inclination is ſtill ſo powerful,

ful, that, at a certain feaſon of the year, you find the hamlets deſerted; the paſtor, a Nomade, like his pariſhioners, follows them to their new ſtations. There are no indigent perſons among them. If a man's morals are good, and he is induſtrious, he is always ſure of a ſubſiſtence for himſelf and his family;—his neighbours ſupply all his neceſſities: but if his conduct is irregular and diſſipated, he is obliged to leave the valley; fearful of the contagion, his countrymen expel him. The women, who are extremely laborious, aſſiſt the men in ruſtic occupations: they are ſhort in ſtature; their complexions are ſunburnt, but yet they are pretty. Doubtleſs their growth is impeded by the heavy burthens which they carry from their earlieſt youth. The men have preſerved the warlike ſpirit of their anceſtors: all the youths enliſt into the French, Piedmonteſe, or Spaniſh ſervice. This country has a great trade in excellent butter, cheeſe, and ſalt meat. The ordinary food of the inhabitants, as well as of all the Valaiſans, conſiſts of ſalt meat, vegetables, milk, and toaſted cheeſe: they have but little wine, and uſe it very ſparingly; they fetch it from Sierre, where each inhabitant poſſeſſes a ſmall vineyard. As we paſſed through this valley, our guide pointed out the cottage of a family, concerning whom he gave us an intereſting account of a misfortune they had eſcaped. It is about ten years ſince the man, named Walter, was returning from Sierre, about the beginning of October. There had been a deep fall of ſnow: Walter had extreme difficulty in finding his way; at length, exhauſted, he arrived at a rock from which his habitation was viſible.—O heavens! his cottage had diſappeared —nothing was to be ſeen but an immenſe maſs of ſnow, which had overwhelmed it. Petrified with horror, he ſeated himſelf upon the rock, and contemplated this terrific ſpectacle. He ſoon aroſe, inſpired, without doubt, by Heaven; ran to his neighbour, requeſting him to aſſiſt him in his deſign. Several of the inhabitants joined the party, and ſet off, provided with ſpades and pick-axes. They fell to work with indefatigable ardour to clear away this horrible mountain of ſnow and ice:—Walter exhorted and encouraged them; —he inſpired them with redoubled ſtrength to continue their labour. Night came on: his friends left him, and he remained at work by himſelf. They returned the next morning, and worked with the ſame ardour and aſſiduity; but, alas! at the concluſion of the ſecond day, nothing was to be ſeen. Walter, again left by himſelf, continued his exertions. The third day, the labour recommenced. To his inexpreſſible joy, Walter firſt perceived the chimney of his cottage; and, by the light of a lamp, he obſerved his wife, his child, and a goat giving ſuck to the latter: he ſhouted with tranſport, and went down into the cottage. What pencil can paint this family at the moment of their meeting—their embraces, their tears, their tranſports!—Every thing was ſafe—wife, children, and cattle: a rock which ſheltered the hut had obliged the avalanche to take another direction. We converſed with this reſpectable couple: ten years, which had elapſed ſince the event, had not diminiſhed their mutual tenderneſs. They have ſix children, who promiſe to inherit the

the virtues of their parents. Blanche embraced the mother and the ſix children. She took from her head a ſilk handkerchief to put it on that of a girl nine years old, who looked at it very much: and the diadem which decorated the brows of the Babylonian Semiramis, or that of the modern Semiramis of the North, never gave them half the joy and delight. After viſiting Anniviers, we traverſed other diſtricts of the Valais. Continuing our route along the right bank of the Rhone, we proceeded along a road the moſt varied, and abounding in magnificent proſpects. This ſuperb gallery of pictures was terminated by agreeable habitations, whoſe poſſeſſors received us with that cordiality and friendſhip which reminded us of the hoſpitality of ancient times. We travelled in the happy land of tranquillity and benevolence: the houſes are always open to all travellers without exception:—every man is to them a countryman—a friend: their tables are always covered, and their beds prepared. They neither inquire your country nor your name. It is thus they received Rouſſeau, who has given ſuch a charming deſcription of the manners of theſe good people, and their hoſpitality."

The correſpondence of the Travellers is enlivened by the ſpirited epiſtles of Madame de l'Omer, a ſuppoſed contemporary of ſome diſtinguiſhed perſonages of the laſt age; and whoſe graceful wit and pleaſantry occaſionally reminded us of Madame de Sevigné. With regard to the literary anecdotes announced in the title-page, they are ſkilfully introduced; and the characteriſtic features of the celebrated men to whom they refer are faithfully retained. But the credit of biography repoſes on unperverted, unembelliſhed facts; ſtubborn materials, with which neither fancy nor invention can aſſimilate. The combination of real and fictitious incidents, however pleaſing in legitimate fiction, by communicating to a biographical work the apocryphal complexion, provokes the reſtleſs ſpirit of ſcepticiſm, and even diminiſhes the confidence due to anecdotical matter of acknowledged authenticity. With curioſity is always mingled a certain portion of caution and ſuſpicion, when its determinate object is truth. We are too much intereſted in the domeſtic annals of celebrated writers to be ſatisfied with any details of their habits, manners, and ſentiments, that are not of unqueſtionable authority. Biography loſes all its value, in loſing its characteriſtic chaſtity and ſimplicity. The epiſodical part of this work is not the leaſt attractive: the ſtory of Pierre is eminently ſuperior to the other volumes. The loves of Adolphe and Blanche are too protracted: and in the memoirs of Philippine there is that pruriency of imagination with which almoſt every French novel is infected. Whatever faults we have diſcovered in theſe volumes, we have diſcovered to be purely French; ſuch as are naturally derived from the popular opinions, modes, and uſages

uſages of the French nation. As a general rule, we would hazard the remark, that French writers of every claſs are more or leſs diſtinguiſhed by the *ſuperficial*, the *hypothetical*, and the *artificial* ſtyle, which might almoſt be conſidered as their diſtinctive, generical character: by the firſt they are perpetually betrayed into errors, and not unfrequently into blunders: by the ſecond they are generally rendered inconſiſtent: by the third, ridiculous and abſurd.—M. Lantier's Travellers in Switzerland is a work in which the *ſuperficial*, the *hypothetical*, and the *artificial*, are all apparent. As a proof of his ACCURACY we will only mention the information reſpecting Franklin, whom he affirms to have made candles till he was fourteen; and then, abandoning his paternal roof, to have gone in queſt of knowledge to Philadelphia. Franklin's adventures were much leſs romantic: we are informed, on his own authority, that he was articled to his brother, a printer in Boſton, at thirteen; and was an able proficient in compoſition long before his elopement for Philadelphia. With equal diſcrimination, the author introduces an Engliſh nobleman, doubtleſs ſuch as Engliſh noblemen exiſt to popular opinion in France,—a philoſophical epicure,—a free-thinker, at once ſtoical and humane, whoſe wife, with whom he lives in perfect harmony, is a *femme galante* with a thouſand virtues. As a companion to my lord, we have Edward Bodley, who has attained the very acme of eccentricity; and who, in a paroxyſm of deſpair for the death of an Engliſh lady, leaves Europe, traverſes the wilds of Canada, and finally marries the daughter of a Pennſylvanian.

In the number of French paradoxes, we may include their enthuſiaſm for *ſimplicity*; which is the more abſurd in a nation whoſe cuſtoms, modes, and uſages are decidedly artificial.—To M. de Lantier, like many other *literary* compatriots, ſimplicity is the unknown divinity. This new worſhip was firſt introduced in France by Jean Jaques Rouſſeau; whoſe opinions, without his ſeductive eloquence, have been eagerly imbibed by a numerous ſect of imitators. With truly *French conſiſtency*, Adolphe preſents to Blanche a nuptial charter, in which, after abrogating all the illiberal ſtatutes in ſupport of conjugal ſubordination and ſupremacy, he ſtipulates, that, from the age of ſeven, the offſpring of their union ſhall be abſolutely ſurrendered to his care;—thus depriving of her moſt precious, moſt honourable privilege, the woman with whom he had formed a covenant founded on equal rights, laws, and liberties!!! With the ſame *French* propriety, Blanche refuſes her hand to Adolphe, though compelled to embrace his protection, till her father, a man as hateful as deſpicable,

deſpicable, ſhall have beſtowed his benediction. Yet, this *immaculate Blanche* becomes the tender friend of Lady Ellis, the *femme galante*, who is ſaid to have quitted her lover to nurſe her huſband; and, *vice verſâ*, after being on the brink of the grave herſelf, to have left her huſband for her lover. But theſe incongruities are eaſily explained:—filial ſubmiſſion being in France enforced by inſtitutions civil and political, ſupported by the whole ſyſtem of domeſtic manners, and the conſtant tenour of popular ſentiment: conjugal fidelity is held leſs ſacred;—crimes are tolerated in the matron;—to the unprotected girl not even indiſcretion is forgiven. We know not that an author is amenable for the errors of his nation; and we mean not to detract from M. Lantier's merit when we ſay, that he writes like a Frenchman: like a Frenchman he ſtudies, not unſucceſsfully, (if we may be allowed the idiom,) the *ſçavoir plaire;* and it would be difficult to open a page in his Travellers which might not afford pleaſure and amuſement. The tranſlation poſſeſſes uncommon merit:—the ſpirit of the original is tranſfuſed in a ſtyle unpolluted by galliciſms.

ART. CXXXIX. *The Correſpondence of Samuel Richardſon; ſelected from the original MSS. bequeathed by him to his Family. To which are prefixed, a Biographical Account of that Author, and Obſervations on his Writings, by Anna Lætitia Barbauld.* 6 vols. 12mo. Phillips, London. 1804.

IT is juſtly and elegantly obſerved by the fair editor of theſe volumes, that "nothing tends ſo ſtrongly to place us in the midſt of the generations that are paſt, as a peruſal of their correſpondence. To have their very letters, their very handwriting before our eyes, gives a more intimate feeling of their exiſtence than any other memorial of them. To ſee the heart that is now chilled with age, or cold in the duſt, pouring forth its firſt youthful feelings; to ſee the hopes and fears, the friendſhips and animoſities, the pains and cares of life, as it paſſes on, inſpires the ſoul with a tender melancholy. We ſee ſome, now eſtabliſhed in fame, who at firſt advanced timid and doubting of their own powers; others ſunk into oblivion, who had the higheſt confidence in them. We ſee ſecret kindneſſes brought to light; and where there has been affectation of any kind, we ſee it did not avail, but that the man is known, and the real motives of his actions diſtinguiſhed through all the gloſſes he puts on." Experience of the truth of theſe remarks gives additional activity to that curioſity whereby the public at large are naturally prompted to inquire into the domeſtic habits and

and familiar connections of thoſe writers, whoſe lucubrations have afforded them inſtruction and pleaſure. Amongſt theſe, Richardſon is entitled to a diſtinguiſhed rank. When he firſt appeared in the character of an author, the novelty of the plan of his works excited an intereſt of which we can at preſent hardly form an adequate idea. And, though the grace of novelty has long ſince faded, and the attention of the public has, in more modern times, been diverted from his voluminous narratives to the fictions of a hoſt of competitors, his reputation ſtill ſtands high in the ſcale of merit. We ſtill love to weep over the woes of Clariſſa, and to liſten to the generous ſentiments that burſt from the throbbing heart of Clementina. The publication of his private correſpondence, therefore, cannot fail to excite general intereſt.

Such unjuſtifiable liberties have, on various occaſions, been taken with the confidential communications and with the literary remains of departed genius, that it is incumbent upon the publiſher of the correſpondence of an author long ſince removed from this theatre of exiſtence, to prove the authenticity of that correſpondence; and alſo to convince the public that the taſk of its arrangement and ſelection has been entruſted to an editor of taſte and diſcretion. On both theſe points the advertiſement prefixed to theſe volumes affords the moſt ſatisfactory information. We learn from it, that it was the favourite employment of Mr. Richardſon's declining years, to ſelect and arrange the letters of his various correſpondents; which, together with a number of his own, tranſcribed with a view to this purpoſe, he deſtined at ſome future time to be ſubmitted to the public inſpection. "After his death, theſe letters remained in the hands of Mrs. Anne Richardſon, his laſt ſurviving daughter, till her death, which took place in January laſt. After that event they became the property of his grand-children, of whom Mr. Phillips purchaſed them at a liberal price."

If, in this inſtance, Mr. Phillips has evinced his diſcernment in the choice of an object of purchaſe, he has not, in our opinion, exhibited leſs judgment in ſubmitting theſe valuable documents to the critical inſpection of Mrs. Barbauld. The good ſenſe and the delicacy of feeling by which the writings of that lady are diſtinguiſhed, afforded an ample pledge that ſhe would diſcharge the office of editor with taſte and fidelity; —and upon an inſpection of the contents of theſe volumes, we confidently declare our conviction, that this pledge ſhe has not forfeited.

To the Correſpondence of Richardſon ſhe has prefixed an account of his life and writings. This piece of biography tends

tends to confirm the often repeated obſervation, that the hiſtory of authors is generally barren of incident. The events of the life of Richardſon are ſo few, that we ſhall be able to lay them before our readers in a very brief, but, we truſt, not altogether an unintereſting narrative.

Mr. Samuel Richardſon was born in the year 1689, in the county of Derby, but in what particular place is at preſent unknown; as, from ſome unaccountable caprice, he thought fit to conceal the name of the town which had the honour to give him birth. His father was a joiner; and having been obliged to leave London in conſequence of the ill ſucceſs of Monmouth's rebellion, in which he is ſuppoſed to have been involved, he found himſelf in proceſs of time ſo reduced in his circumſtances, as to be compelled to relinquiſh his intention of bringing up his ſon Samuel to the Church, and to put him to trade. Accordingly, young Richardſon was, in the year 1706, bound apprentice to Mr. John Wilde, of Stationers' Hall, a printer of conſiderable eminence. In the choice of a trade, which was ſubmitted to his own diſcretion, he was influenced by a thirſt for reading, which he imagined the various publications which paſſed through his maſter's office would afford him ample opportunities of gratifying. In this expectation, however, he was diſappointed: he was kept ſo cloſely to work, that the only portions of time which he could devote to the improvement of his mind, were thoſe that he ſtole from the hours of reſt and relaxation. "After the expiration of his apprenticeſhip," ſays Mrs. B., "he continued five or ſix years working as a compoſitor and corrector of the preſs to a printing office, and part of the time as an overſeer; and at length, thus working his way upwards into day-light, he took up his freedom, and ſet up for himſelf; at firſt, in a court in Fleet-ſtreet; from whence, as his buſineſs grew more extenſive, he removed into Saliſbury-court."

Being thus eſtabliſhed, Mr. Richardſon applied himſelf to buſineſs with ſuch aſſiduity that he ſoon attained to a conſiderable degree of affluence in his circumſtances;—an affluence which enabled him freely to exerciſe that liberality of diſpoſition which was one of the diſtinguiſhing features of his character.

Mr. Richardſon was not, however, ſo much engroſſed by buſineſs as to confine himſelf to the mechanical operations of a printer: he exerciſed his talents in compoſing prefaces and dedications to various works publiſhed by other authors. In the early period of his life, he had cultivated the art of letter-writing, by managing the correſpondence of three young women whoſe ignorance or diffidence precluded them from revealing

revealing to their lovers the emotions of their hearts in their own language. From that period he was fond of epiſtolary compoſition; and, his predilection for this ſpecies of writing having been noticed by the bookſellers, they requeſted him to draw up a volume of familiar letters upon a variety of ſuppoſed occaſions. This requeſt gave riſe to his Hiſtory of Pamela, which was publiſhed in the year 1740.

"This firſt work of Mr. Richardſon," ſays Mrs. Barbauld, "was received with a burſt of applauſe from all ranks of people. The novelty of the plan, the ſtrokes of nature and pathos with which the work abounds, the ſimplicity of the language, the ſentiments of piety and virtue that are brought forward, took at once the taſte of the public. Numberleſs were the compliments Mr. Richardſon received upon it, as ſoon as he was known to be the author; for, in the publication he only aſſumed the character of editor, and that not by name. He had earneſtly wiſhed, he ſaid, to be concealed: probably he did, till its reception was known. All that read, were his readers. Even at Ranelagh, thoſe who remember the publication ſay, that it was uſual for ladies to hold up the volumes of Pamela to one another, to ſhow they had got the book that every one was talking of. The tendency of this novel was held to be ſo excellent, that it was recommended by Dr. Slocock even from the pulpit. The friends of the author were laviſh, not to ſay extravagant, in their compliments; and he received ſpontaneous eulogiums from many of the firſt authors of the age. Mr. Leake thus writes of Mr. Allen and Mr. Pope: Mr. Pope ſays, 'It will do more good than many volumes of ſermons: I have heard them both very high in its praiſes, and they will not bear any faults to be mentioned in the ſtory. I believe they have read it twice a-piece at leaſt. I believe Mr. Pope will call on you.' Mr. Chetwynd ſays, that 'if all other books were to be burnt, this book, next to the Bible, ought to be preſerved.' Mr. Lobb talks of bringing up his ſon to be virtuous, by giving him Pamela as ſoon as he could read; a choice of books for a youth which we, at preſent, ſhould be very much ſurprized at: and Mr. Lucas, the eſteemed author of the 'Search after Happineſs,' thus writes: 'I am informed that the author of Pamela (the beſt book ever publiſhed, and calculated to do moſt good) is one Mr. Richardſon, printer. I think it a piece of common juſtice, to ſhow my regard to this common benefactor of mankind, by making him a tender of my beſt ſervices. Accordingly, being about to publiſh a volume of ſermons, I take the liberty of making him the offer of them.' It was immediately tranſlated into French and Dutch."

For an intereſting account of the anecdote upon which the Hiſtory of Pamela was founded, we muſt refer our readers to one of Mr. Richardſon's Letters, quoted by Mrs. Barbauld, p. lxix. et ſeq.

The ſucceſs of this work induced its author to publiſh a ſecond part, which, as Mrs. Barbauld juſtly obſerves, is, like moſt ſecond parts, greatly inferior to the firſt.

But whatever diminution the fame of Mr. Richardſon might experience by the publication of the ſecond part of Pamela, "he roſe with new luſtre in Clariſſa," the firſt two volumes of which were publiſhed eight years after the preceding; and after an interval of between four and five years, he again appeared before the public as the author of Sir Charles Grandiſon.

The reputation which Mr. Richardſon acquired by the publication of theſe celebrated works induced many of the wits, and even of the men of rank and faſhion of his time, to court his acquaintance: and it muſt be mentioned, to his honour, that his friends were numerous and highly reſpectable. His temper was ſingularly kind and generous; and to the diſtreſſed in circumſtances, he was liberal of his abundance. In all his various connections he ſeems to have been the child of ſympathy, and to have "rejoiced with thoſe that rejoiced, and to have wept with them that wept."

"The author of Clariſſa was always fond of female ſociety. He lived in a kind of flower-garden of ladies: they were his inſpirers, his critics, his applauders; connections of buſineſs apart, they were his chief correſpondents. He had generally a number of young ladies at his houſe, whom he uſed to engage in converſation on ſome ſubject of ſentiment; and provoked, by artful oppoſition, to diſplay the treaſures of intellect they poſſeſſed. Miſs Mulſo, afterwards Mrs. Chapone; Miſs Highmore, now Mrs. Duncombe; Miſs Talbot, niece to Secker, and author of ſome much eſteemed devotional pieces; Miſs Preſcott, afterwards Mrs. Mulſo; Miſs Fieldings, and Miſs Colliers; reſided occaſionally with him. He was accuſtomed to give the young ladies he eſteemed, the endearing appellation of his daughters. He uſed to write in a little ſummer-houſe, or grotto, as it was called, within his garden, before the family were up; and, when they met at breakfaſt, he communicated the progreſs of his ſtory; which, by that means, had every day a freſh and lively intereſt. Then began the criticiſms, the pleadings, for Harriet Byron or Clementina: every turn and every incident was eagerly canvaſſed, and the author enjoyed the benefit of knowing before-hand how his ſituations would ſtrike. Their own little partialities and entanglements, too, were developed, and became the ſubject of grave advice or lively raillery."

Notwithſtanding the ſenſe which all people of obſervation and reflection entertain of the inſtability of human enjoyments, it muſt have been a ſubject of lively ſorrow to the numerous acquaintance and friends of Mr. Richardſon, that his valuable life was terminated by a ſtroke of an apoplexy on the 4th of July 1761, at the age of ſeventy-two.

We wiſh our limits, and the juſtice due to the proprietor of a work of uncommon merit, would permit us to quote at length Mrs. B.'s admirable criticiſms on Clariſſa and Sir Charles Grandiſon;—criticiſms in which, whilſt her mind like that of Longinus expands by the contemplation of her ſubject, ſhe pours forth, in elegant language, the effuſions of a feeling heart, regulated by a well-cultivated intellect. But the abovementioned conſiderations, ſuperadded to our conviction that partial extracts can give but an inadequate idea of her critical powers, induce us to forbear, and to content ourſelves with referring our readers to this part of the work, as meriting their particular attention.

The correſpondents of Richardſon, whoſe letters occupy the bulk of theſe volumes, were; Aaron Hill; Dr. Young; Mr. Edwards, the author of the Canons of Criticiſm; the two Miſs Colliers, and Miſs Fieldings; the too celebrated Lætitia Pilkington; Cibber; Mrs. Sheridan; Miſs Mulſo; Miſs Highmore; Mr. Duncombe; Miſs Sutton; Mrs. Donnelan; Mrs. Delany; Miſs Weſtcombe; Mr. Skelton; Mark Hildeſley, Biſhop of Sodor and Man; Mr. Klopſtock; Mr. Stinſtra, the Dutch miniſter, who tranſlated Clariſſa; Lady Bradſhaigh, of Haigh, near Wigan, in Lancaſhire; and her ſiſter Lady Echlin. Of the hiſtory of moſt of theſe perſonages, Mrs. B. has given brief notices at the end of her Life of Richardſon. The merit of the ſeveral ſeries of their letters is of courſe various. The greater part are intereſting, either on account of their matter or their manner. But it muſt be confeſſed, that in the peruſal of ſome of them the attention flags, and that the perpetual recurrence of compliments to Mr. Richardſon, however ſincere or well merited thoſe compliments may have been, ſometimes affects the mind with a feeling approaching to diſſatisfaction, which we experience when Miſs Byron communicates to her correſpondents the gallant ſpeeches that are made to her own praiſe and glory. We ſhall conclude our notice of theſe volumes by extracting from them a few epiſtles which may be generally intereſting to our readers. Of this deſcription we eſteem the following letter from Aaron Hill, which contains a curious anecdote of the vanity and ill-temper of Pope; an anecdote which muſt however be received with ſome grains of allowance, as thoſe rival wits long regarded each other with mutual jealouſy and diſlike:

"To Mr. Richardſon.

"Dear Sir,

"As to the ſtory promiſed you concerning Mr. Pope, I could not have forgot to give it you. It left a much more deep impreſſion on my memory than any vanity, that was but a mere vanity,

could have been capable of fixing there. For a too partial ſenſibility to ſelf is often but a harmleſs, to be pitied pride of head; whereas here ſeemed to have been ſomething worſe than even a pride of heart.—ſomething that blew up lightneſs into inſolence, and added coarſeneſs to ingratitude.

" There was a verſe which Mr. Pope had drawn from a miſtaken hint in Horace, which he would be oft repeating, and was very fond of:

' For fools *admire*; but men of ſenſe *approve*.'

I uſed to tell him I abhorred the ſentiment, both from its arrogance and want of truth in nature. We had many conteſts of this kind: but there are arguers, whom Heaven, as this ſame gentleman expreſſes it extremely well,

' Has curs'd with hearts unknowing how to yield.'

And ſo our battles uſually were drawn ones, where both ſides laid claim to victory.

" In the laſt debate we had upon this ſubject, I deſired to know if he was ſtill, as formerly, convinced that Longinus's remark on the *ſublime* was right?—' That the moſt certain way of knowing it is from the power in ſome idea touch'd enthuſiaſtically, to move the blood and ſpirits into tranſport, by a thrilling kind of joy, that raiſes pride in him who hears the paſſage, as if his ſoul grew wider, by expanding to conceive ſuch images.'

" He owned it was the ſtrongeſt definition of the true ſublime that could be poſſibly imagined: but was ſure, that only men of genius could conceive it. Whereupon I aſked him, whether joy, and tranſport, and enthuſiaſm, and a thrill of blood, could poſſibly conſiſt with want of admiration? He perceived the uſe I made of his conceſſion, and ſaid nothing till I added this new queſtion: Whether only fools admire, if only men of genius are ſuſceptible of a ſublimity of admiration?

" In ſome perplexity to find a better anſwer, he was forced to ſatisfy himſelf with ſaying, that Longinus's remark was truth, but that, like certain truths of more importance, it required aſſent from faith, without the evidence of demonſtration. I replied, that I had had the pleaſure to be witneſs of its demonſtration, in an inſtance that himſelf gave cauſe for.

" His curioſity was raiſed, and I informed him, that at reading a new play at Lord Tyrconnel's, there was preſent a gentleman, diſtinguiſhed both for rank and genius, who, on a diſcourſe about the difficulty of a delicate and manly praiſe, repeated thoſe fine lines, in compliment to the Earl of Oxford, printed before D. Parnell's poems. I added, that this Gentleman had been ſo generouſly warmed in his repeating them, that he was the moſt undeniable example I had ever ſeen of all Longinus's effect of the ſublime, in its moſt amiable force of energy! for, (breaking off into a humaniſed exceſs of rapture, that expreſſed philanthropy with ſuch a natural beauty, that, had he been my greateſt enemy, I muſt have from that moment been compelled to love him for it,) he told us, ' he could never read thoſe verſes without rapture; for

for that ſentiments, ſuch as thoſe were, appeared to carry more of the God in them than the man, and he was never weary of admiring them!'

"I there looked on Mr. Pope, in expectation of a queſtion that he aſked immediately,—'Who was this gentleman?' I anſwered it was the Speaker of the Houſe of Commons: and re-pauſed attentively for the effect his gratitude was brought in debt for.

"But here aroſe the groundwork of my ſtory, in a vanity, that merited a name ſo much ſeverer, that, I own, I never afterwards recovered the opinion I then loſt of that (too loud) pretenſion to high morals, which you know he loved to make on all occaſions.

"In ſhort, he had ſo much unfeeling arrogance, as to receive this honour (done him in ſo noble and ſo natural a manner) as deſerving only a ſtrained ſupercilious ſmile; and all he ſaid upon it was,—'The Speaker is a man remarkable for heat of paſſion; and ſuch tranſports will be common to ſuch tempers!'

"I have done with this long little ſtory. But, as painters better catch a likeneſs from ſome ſmall unguarded glance of negligence, than any ſet poſition of the countenance; ſo, if I were diſpoſed (as I am not) to give the world an ugly picture of this famous poet's mind, I could not chuſe the help of a more ſtrikingly characteriſtic feature. It affected me the more, becauſe I knew him in the firſt gradations of his riſe to notice; and compared his preſent ill-bred and contemptuous diſregard of admiration, with the mean ſedulity of all thoſe acts of flattery wherewith he courted praiſe, in the beginning of his growth to eminence. Many poor plots there are which the leaſt diſcerning eye can look through, in the letters between him and Mr. Wycherly, and Harry Cromwell, and in a long et cætera of obſervations on his outſet conduct. But it is time to put an end to letters on the fourth page of a ſheet; and ſo,

"Dear Sir, 'Yours, &c. A. HILL."

Amongſt the letters of Dr. Young, we find one which proves that the orthodoxy of this celebrated divine was not, like that of many of his brethren, alarmed by the ſpeculations contained in Hartley's "Obſervations on Man."

"When I was in town, I aſked you if you had read Dr. Hartley's book. You told me you had not. I was ſorry for it; for I have a curioſity to know your opinion of it. I have ſince read it a ſecond time, and with great ſatisfaction. It is certainly a work of diſtinction; by men of diſtinction therefore it ought to be read. It is calculated for men of ſenſe. I make no doubt but that it has its gainſayers; but therefore it is a proper ſubject for your diſcuſſion and diſcernment. So few books have any thing new in them, that thoſe which have are entitled to our particular regard. All I will venture to ſay about it is, that there is no man who ſeriouſly conſiders himſelf as immortal, but will find his pleaſure if not his profit in it. And if you are not one of thoſe men, give me leave to ſay, you have greatly impoſed on, "Dear Sir,

"Your very affectionate and moſt humble ſervant,

"E. YOUNG."

Mrs. B. has well obſerved, that "the tale of Lætitia Pilkington, the companion of Swift and Delany, adorned with wit and beauty, may be uſeful to ſhow how low a woman may fall who has parted with her virtue." The innocent will ſhudder and take warning, and they who have advanced but a few ſteps in depravity, will, perhaps, tremble and recede, when they contemplate the ſcene which is thus depicted by the miſerable victim of unreſtrained paſſion:

"I have long been ſilent; I only wiſh I were ſo for ever. But indeed, I think all ſorts of plagues and ſhames are to be raiſed on my bare head. My daughter is come to me big with child, naked, and deſolate; and becauſe I would not let her lie in the ſtreet, my ſaint-like methodiſt landlady has padlocked the door, and turned us both there. My own writings ſhe has ſecured, as well as a few ſmall matters ſhe, my child, had provided for her child. I have leſs authority to blame her than, perhaps, another mother would take. We have both been forced to ſit up in a place they call a night-houſe, all laſt night, ſo that my head is extremely diſordered; and I hope you will pity and pardon my bad writing. As I know you are a ſubſcriber to ſome of the hoſpitals, could I but get her to lie-in in one, I ſhould think myſelf happy.

"Dear Sir, if this be in your power to grant, it will ſave three lives, and mingle civic crowns with your bays. Indeed I am almoſt diſtracted. This is a calamity quite unexpected. Once more I beg your pardon, and I am ſure your humanity will incline you to pity, Sir,

"Your moſt gratefully obliged ſervant,
"L. PILKINGTON."

As a ſtriking contraſt to the turbid and wretched emotions conſequent upon a life of guilt, we ſhall exhibit an exquiſite delineation of the ſtrong but delicate feelings of virtuous love, as contained in a letter from Mrs. Klopſtock, the wife of the celebrated author of the Meſſiah. We cordially ſubſcribe to Mrs. B.'s preſumption, that the reader of taſte will not wiſh that this letter had been put into better Engliſh.

"To Mr. Richardſon.

"Hamburgh, March 14th, 1758.

"You are very kind, Sir, to wiſh to know every thing of your Hamburg kindred. Then I will obey, and ſpeak of nothing but myſelf in this letter.

"I was not the Lady who hath been with two Gentlemen from Göttenburgh in England. If I had, never would I have waited the cold ceremony of introducing you to me. In your houſe I had been before you knew that I was in England. That I ſhall, if ever I am ſo happy as to come there. We had a pretty project to do it in the ſpring to come, but I fear that we cannot execute it. The great fiend of friendſhip, war, will alſo hinder this, I think. I fear

I fear your Anti-Gallicans exceedingly, more than the Gallicans themſelves; they, I muſt confeſs it, are at leaſt more civil with neutral ſhips. I pray to God, to preſerve you and Dr. Young till peace comes.

"We have a ſhort letter of Dr. Young, in which he complains of his health. How does he yet? And you, who are a youth for him, how do you do yourſelf?

"You will know all what concerns me. Love, dear Sir, is all what me concerns! And love ſhall be all what I will tell you in this letter.

"In one happy night I read my huſband's poem, the Meſſiah. I was extremely touched with it. The next day I aſked one of his friends, who was the author of this poem; and this was the firſt time I heard Klopſtock's name. I believe, I fell immediately in love with him. At the leaſt, my thoughts were ever with him filled, eſpecially becauſe his friend told me very much of his character. But I had no hopes ever to ſee him; when, quite unexpectedly, I heard that he ſhould paſs through Hamburgh. I wrote immediately to the ſame friend, for procuring by his means that I might ſee the author of the Meſſiah, when in Hamburg. He told him, that a certain girl at Hamburg wiſhed to ſee him, and, for all recommendation, ſhowed him ſome letters, in which I made bold to criticize Klopſtock's verſes. Klopſtock came, and came to me. I muſt confeſs, that, though greatly prepoſſeſſed of his qualities, I never thought him the amiable youth whom I found him. This made its effect. After having ſeen him two hours, I was obliged to paſs the evening in a company, which never had been ſo weariſome to me. I could not ſpeak, I could not play; I thought I ſaw nothing but Klopſtock. I ſaw him the next day, and the following, and we were very ſeriouſly friends. But the fourth day he departed. It was a ſtrong hour, the hour of his departure! He wrote ſoon after, and from that time our correſpondence began to be a very diligent one. I ſincerely believed my love to be friendſhip. I ſpoke with my friends of nothing but Klopſtock, and ſhowed his letters. They rallied at me, and ſaid I was in love. I rallied them again, and ſaid they muſt have a very friendſhipleſs heart, if they had no idea of friendſhip to a man as well as to a woman. Thus it continued eight months, in which time my friends found as much love in Klopſtock's letters as in me. I perceived it likewiſe, but I would not believe it. At the laſt, Klopſtock ſaid plainly, that he loved; and I ſtartled as for a wrong thing. I anſwered, that it was no love, but friendſhip, as it was what I felt for him; we had not ſeen one another enough to love (as if love muſt have more time than friendſhip!) This was ſincerely my meaning, and I had this meaning till Klopſtock came again to Hamburg. This he did a year after we had ſeen one another the firſt time. We ſaw, we were friends, we loved; and we believed that we loved; and a ſhort time after I could even tell Klopſtock that I loved. But we were obliged to part again, and wait two years for our wedding. My mother would not let marry me a ſtranger. I could

marry then without her conſentment, as by the death of my father my fortune depended not on her; but this was a horrible idea for me; and thank Heaven that I have prevailed by prayers! At this time knowing Klopſtock, ſhe loves him as her lifely ſon, and thanks God, that ſhe has not perſiſted. We married, and I am the happieſt wife in the world. In ſome few months it will be four years that I am ſo happy, and ſtill I dote upon Klopſtock as if he was my bridegroom.

"If you knew my huſband, you would not wonder. If you knew his poem, I could deſcribe him very briefly, in ſaying he is in all reſpects what he is as a poet. This I can ſay with all wifely modeſty.

"But I dare not to ſpeak of my huſband; I am all raptures when I do it. And as happy as I am in love, ſo happy am I in friendſhip, in my mother, two elder ſiſters, and five other women. How rich I am!

"Sir, you have willed that I ſhould ſpeak of myſelf, but I fear I have done it too much: yet you ſee how it intereſts me.

"I have the beſt compliments for you of my dear huſband. My compliments to all yours. Will they increaſe my treaſure of friendſhip?

"I am, Sir,

"Your moſt humble ſervant,

"M. KLOPSTOCK."

We ſhall next lay before our readers a ſpecimen of the playful eaſe with which Mr. Richardſon was accuſtomed to addreſs his numerous female correſpondents.

"To Miſs Weſtcomb.*

"A letter from my dear was what I wiſhed and hoped for, as my wife, by my laſt, could have ſhewn you: and I am greatly obliged that I had that favour ſpontaneouſly.

"I thank you for your kind wiſhes for my health. You are abſolutely right in judging that I had rather be in a deſert, than in a place ſo public and ſo giddy, if I may call the place ſo from its frequenters. But theſe waters were almoſt the only thing in medicine that I had not tried; and as my diſorders ſeemed to increaſe, I was willing to try them.—Hitherto, I muſt own, without effect is the trial. But people here, who ſlide in upon me as I traverſe the utmoſt edges of the walks, that I may ſtand in nobody's way, nor have my dizzineſs increaſed by the ſwimming triflers, tell me, I ſhall not give them fair play under a month or ſix weeks; and that I ought neither to write nor read;—yet my buſineſs, as well as inclination, compelling me to do a great deal of both: for, I have all my town concerns upon me here, ſent me every poſt and coach, and cannot help it.

"Here are great numbers of people got together.—A very full ſeaſon, and more coming every day—great comfort to me! When I ſay that I cannot abide them, nor the diverſions of the place, you muſt not think that I am ſuch a ſtoic as to deſpiſe the amuſements I cannot

* This letter was evidently written from Tunbridge Wells.

cannot partake of, purely on that account; indeed I do not: and I think youth is the ſeaſon for gaiety. Nor is it a folly, as you are pleaſed to call it, in you, that you can find allurements in a brilliant circle, and at a ſparkling ball. But there is a moderation to be approved of in all theſe, which I ſee not here. And, methinks, I would wiſh that wives (particularly ſome that I ſee here) would not behave as if they thought themſelves unmarried coquettes, and that it were polite to make their huſbands the laſt perſons in their notices. Is it not enough for theſe people to find themſelves dreſſed and adorned, at an expence, both as to quality and quantity, that would furniſh out two wives or miſtreſſes: but they muſt ſhew that thoſe dreſſes and ornaments are beſtowed upon them to please and delight any body rather than the perſon whom it ſhould be their principal ſtudy to pleaſe; and who perhaps confers, or contributes to confer, upon them the means by which they ſhine, and think themſelves above him? Secret hiſtory and ſcandal I love not, or I could tell you—you don't think what I could tell you.

"But, waving theſe invidious ſubjects, what if I could inform you, that, among ſcores of belles, flatterers, triflers, who ſwim along theſe walks ſelf-ſatisfied and pleaſed, and looking defiances to men (and to modeſty I had like to have ſaid, for baſhfulneſs ſeems to be conſidered as want of breeding in all I ſee here), a pretty woman is as rare as a black ſwan. And when one ſuch ſtarts up, ſhe is nicknamed a beauty, and old fellows and young fellows are ſet a-ſpinning after her.

"Miſs Banks (Miſs Peggy Banks) was the belle when I came firſt down: yet ſhe had been ſo many ſeaſons here, that ſhe obtained but a faint and languid attention; ſo that the ſmarts began to put her down in their liſt of had-beens!—New faces, my dear, are more ſought after than fine faces. A piece of inſtruction lies here,—that women ſhould not make even their faces cheap.

"Miſs Chudleigh next was the triumphant toaſt: a lively, ſweet-tempered, gay, ſelf-admired, and, not altogether without reaſon, generally admired lady. She moved not without crowds after her. She ſmiled at every one: every one ſmiled before they ſaw her, when they heard ſhe was on the walk. She played, ſhe loſt, ſhe won—all with equal good-humour: but, alas! ſhe went off before ſhe was wiſhed to go off; and then the fellows' hearts were almoſt broke for a new beauty.

"Behold! ſeaſonably, the very day that ſhe went away, entered upon the walks, Miſs L. of Hackney!—Miſs Chudleigh was forgot; (who would wiſh for ſo tranſient a dominion in the land of fickledom?)—And have you ſeen the new beauty?—And have you ſeen Miſs L.? was all the inquiry from ſmart to ſmartleſs. But ſhe had not traverſed the walks two days, before ſhe was found to want ſpirit and life; Miſs Chudleigh was remembered by thoſe who wiſhed for the brilliant miſtreſs, and ſcorned the wife-like quality of ſedateneſs; and Miſs L. is now ſeen, with a very ſilly fellow or two, walking backwards and forwards unmoleſted—dwindled down from the new beauty to a very pretty girl; and, perhaps, glad to come

off

off ſo: for, upon my word, my dear, there are very few pretty girls here. And yet I look not upon the ſex with an undelighted eye, old as I am; nor with a very ſevere one. But modeſty, humility, graciouſneſs, are now all baniſhed from the behaviour of theſe public-place frequenters of the ſex.—Women are not what they were: I ſee not but they have as much courage as the men.—The men, indeed, at theſe public places, ſeem to like them the better for it.—No wonder; for they find the leſs difficulty to make parties with them, and to get into their companies. But one ſecret I could tell them;—that the ſingle men who would make the beſt companions for life, come not, on ſet purpoſe, to theſe public places to chooſe one.

"But here, to change the ſcene, to ſee Mr. W—ſh at eighty (Mr. Cibber calls him papa), and Mr. Cibber at ſeventy-ſeven, hunting after new faces; and thinking themſelves happy if they can obtain the notice and familiarity of a fine woman!—How ridiculous! If you have not been at Tunbridge, you may nevertheleſs have heard that here are a parcel of fellows, mean traders, whom they call touters, and their buſineſs touting;—riding out miles to meet coaches and company coming hither, to beg their cuſtom while here.

"Mr. Cibber was over head and ears in love with Miſs Chudleigh. Her admirers (ſuch was his happineſs!) were not jealous of him; but, pleaſed with that wit in him which they had not, were always for calling him to her. She ſaid pretty things—for ſhe was Miſs Chudleigh; he ſaid pretty things—for he was Mr. Cibber: and all the company, men and women, ſeemed to think they had an intereſt in what was ſaid, and were half as well pleaſed as if they had ſaid the ſprightly things themſelves; and mighty well contented were they to be ſecond-hand repeaters of the pretty things. But once I faced the laureat, ſquatted upon one of the benches, with a face more wrinkled than ordinary with diſappointment.

"'I thought,' ſaid I, 'you were of the party at the tea-treats—Miſs Chudleigh is gone into the tea-room.'—'Pſhaw!' ſaid he, 'there is no coming at her, ſhe is ſo ſurrounded by the toupets': and I left him upon the fret.—But he was called to ſoon after; and in he flew, and his face ſhone again and looked ſmooth.

"He had written a dialogue between a father and daughter:—the intention, to ſhew that the paternal authority and filial obedience may be reconciled! He has read it to half a ſcore at a time of the fair ſex; and not a young lady but is mightily pleaſed with a leſſon that will teach her to top her father. He read it to the ſpeaker and me. I made objections to it. I told him, that I ſaw he intended not to make his girl dutiful; but I beſought him to let her be generous. The ſpeaker adviſed, that he ſhould let me have it to look upon. He inſiſted himſelf that I ſhould give him ſome remarks upon it.—I did, upon the firſt page only; excuſing myſelf as to the reſt. But, in ſhort, the piece is calculated, as it ſtands at preſent, to throw down all diſtinction between parents and children.

dren. Yet it has met with ſo much applauſe among the young flirts, that I don't know whether he will not publiſh it.—If he does, I had a good mind that Miſs Howe (who is pert enough of conſcience to her mamma; Clariſſa, you know, is dead) ſhould anſwer it.

"Another extraordinary old man we have had here, but of a very different turn; the noted Mr. Whiſton, ſhowing eclipſes, and explaining other phenomena of the ſtars, and preaching the millennium, and anabaptiſm (for he is now, it ſeems, of that perſuaſion) to gay people; who, if they have white teeth, hear him with open mouths, though perhaps ſhut hearts; and after his lecture is over, not a bit the wiſer, run from him the more eagerly to C—r and W—ſh, and to flutter among the loud-laughing young fellows upon the walks, like boys and girls at a breaking-up.

"You ſee, my dear, what a trifling letter I have written. You ſet me upon it. My head is very indifferent—my nerves no better than when I came down;—and I ſhould not write ſo much, they ſay, as I do; otherwiſe, if you could bear ſuch ſtuff, I could run on a volume; relating others' follies and forgetting my own. But 'tis time to relieve you, and to aſſure you that I am, with great gratitude and reſpect,

"My dear,

"Your affectionate and paternal

"Friend and ſervant,

"S. RICHARDSON."

Numerous as our extracts have been from theſe entertaining volumes, we cannot reſiſt the temptation of quoting one of the letters of the ſprightly Lady Bradſhaigh, in which ſhe is drawn into a diſcuſſion of the delicate ſubject of the ſubordination of wives to their huſbands:

"To Mr. Richardſon.

"July 28th, 1752.

"Shall I never get the better of you, in any one argument? No never, anſwers my beſt underſtanding. And, dear Sir, is not my conſtantly failing in my endeavours, a deſerved puniſhment for my preſumptuous attempts? Yet I muſt argue, or how ſhould I improve myſelf? Though you have kindly allowed me an exception to your general rule, you will ſcarcely allow the excepted to be a judge out of her own caſe; for ſhe can only form her notions by what ſhe knows, which ſeem ſo oppoſite to yours, that I can hardly hope they will ever meet: and yet I verily think I could meet you half way; but I am not yet in the humour.

"The law of England, which gives liberty for a huſband to uſe moderate correction, may be a well-deſigned law, but left a little too much at large, becauſe there may be very different interpretations of the word moderate, which, I think, I obſerved before.—There may be wives who ſtand corrected, and have leſs occaſion for it than their correctors; and there are many huſbands much inferior, in capacity and underſtanding, to the wives they correct. A grating circumſtance! But, 'Wives, be in ſubjection to your own huſbands,'

huſbands,' is an anſwer to all the hardſhip and juſt complaints they can make; and I grant it is the wiſeſt and beſt method we can take, ſince we have no redreſs; and I acknowledge humility is the ſafeſt way to happineſs, though there are men who would make better huſbands to the woman of ſpirit, than to the meek and gentle. However, the laws are ſevere, at leaſt in practice; but they were made by men, to juſtify their tyranny.

"What do I care for the patriarchs! If they took it into their heads to be tyrants, why ſhould we allow them to be worthy examples to imitate? If we know all their domeſtic differences, we ſhould not, perhaps, find the good women the houſehold doves you repreſent them. Sarah, indeed, called her huſband lord; no great matter in that, though I believe ſhe was obedient; for, without ſcruple, ſhe even told lies when her huſband bid her; but we will ſuppoſe they were of the white kind.

"You do not bring in Rebecca as an inſtance and example of obedience. Well, ſhe obeyed her dying huſband, her lord, as no doubt ſhe called him.

"I am apt to think the wives of theſe days are not worſe, though cuſtoms are changed, than were the patriarchal ladies. Your ſeeming to think otherwiſe, made me ſay what I have ſaid. And now you will tell me, that you know wives in every age were bad enough; and I ſhall anſwer, that huſbands in every age were worſe; which I do not ſay to raiſe an argument, but as my real opinion.

"I ſhall ſtick to my text. 'Perfect love caſteth out fear:' which tells us, if we perfectly love, we cannot fear, at leaſt we are not to ſuppoſe fear neceſſary. But you ſay, the Scripture expreſſion for love is often fear. Surely it cannot mean that fear which the text calls a torment. Herein are two different ſorts of fear; but I ſhall not attempt to explain them, perhaps for a very ſubſtantial reaſon.

"I am very ſenſible how high the text is directed, and how deſpicable the love we profeſs is, in compariſon to the divine love therein meant; yet I do not think it a preſumption to humbly imitate that love, as far as mortals can imitate divinity: and I think the love bound up in two united hearts and ſouls, the love ſubſiſting beyond the paſſions; the perfect love, which caſteth out fear, comes the neareſt to the divine love.

"You are far from countenancing polygamy. I proteſt I think not very far; but I will ſtill venture to ſet the firſt ſingle pair, as the firſt ordinance of God, againſt your firſt command, "Increaſe and multiply." To us ſhort-ſighted mortals, it appears polygamy was then, if ever, neceſſary; but God Almighty thought otherwiſe, it is plain. And why it was afterwards allowed without condemnation, and why infinite numbers of other things were or were not condemned or applauded, is not within the reach of our comprehenſion; nor are we to aſk, why? God has ſet us our bounds that we ſhall not paſs, for all-wiſe reaſons, we ought to conclude. But, as to the doctrine of polygamy, there is this great difficulty to be ſolved between us: you ſay, 'the law of nature does more than allow

allow it:' and it appears to me ſo repugnant to nature, that it poſitively forbids it. So many reaſons crowd into my head, that I know not where to begin, nor ſhould I know where to end; but, tell me this, is it in nature for a woman who wiſhes to be happy with the man ſhe loves—loves in the moſt pure and refined ſenſe,—is it, I ſay, in nature for that woman to endure, with a heart at eaſe, a rival in the affections, in the cloſe-connected friendſhip, of one whoſe entire love, eſteem, and confidence, is her greateſt ambition? I do not think I have more jealouſy in my temper than is conſiſtent with true love; but, poſitively, I could not bear it: I ſhould either turn termagant, or fret myſelf to death in ſilent grief. And, were I a man, I think I ſhould deſpiſe a woman who could ſit down contented with my divided love: and, according to my notions, any man muſt have a very uneaſy life, under the circumſtance of polygamy, where there muſt be unavoidable heart-burnings, jealouſies, ſeparate intereſts, with a long train of uncomfortable attendants. Except the man is a tyrant, then, indeed, the uneaſineſs may be confined to his Statiras and Roxanas. Upon the whole, I am willing to think the laws of our land are agreeable to the laws of God and of nature.

" I never read Milton's Treatiſe upon Divorces, but have heard it much condemned, as a thing calculated to ſerve his own private ends. Though, divorces may be thought allowable by thoſe who do not think polygamy ſo. But whatever he may have written is of no great conſequence, ſince I will ſtand and fall by the law of nature.

" I put myſelf vaſtly in mind of a ſchool-boy, who is running away after a diſpute, but turns ſhort upon his antagoniſt, gives the laſt word, and then takes to his heels, ſtopping his ears for fear of hearing a reply.

" Since you allow a wife to ſteal into power, in the manner I mentioned, and deſire to know the inſtance I have to give, take it, amongſt the reſt of my trifles. You muſt ſuppoſe a happy pair, both more anxious for each other's ſatisfaction than for their own. The gentleman ſuffering a little inconvenience in his apartment, the lady having hit upon a contrivance to redreſs it; but, as it could not be done without a ſmall building and ſome expence, ſhe, to be ſure, would not attempt it without his conſent, which ſhe could not obtain by any method ſhe could think of. As it was wholly for his own convenience, he would not indulge himſelf in it. For three years he withſtood her ſolicitations, when, at laſt, ſhe hit upon the lucky moment: it being the topic in the company of a few friends, the gentleman ſtill reſolute, and perſiſting that it was too much trouble and expence, only to gratify himſelf in making a more ample convenience, when it could not then be called inconvenient; the lady pretty earneſtly ſaid, 'Then ſuffer it to be done to add to my happineſs: how much I cannot ſay, but it will be in proportion to the ſatisfaction and pleaſure you will take in it when it is finiſhed.' The gentleman anſwered, 'My dear, there is no ſtanding againſt that; you have my conſent, and to you I commit the management

nagement of the whole: I ſhall never grudge an expence, which I can put down towards making my wife happy.' The lady gratefully returned her thanks, and the company clapped. Moſt of them women, you will perverſely ſuppoſe. A mixture, I aſſure you.

"The deſign is perfected, and the lady has had happineſs in her huſband's ſatisfaction; and he has his ſatisfaction more in her additional happineſs, than in the enjoyment of his new convenience, though that is anſwerable.

"You muſt not find fault with your daughters, for not performing what is next to impoſſible at their age. I led you into it, by telling you I had for ſome time made extracts from what I had read. But how long have I done that? About two years, I believe; no more. I now wiſh I had done it ſooner; but, alas! no threatening, no indulgence, could have drove me to it thirty, no, nor twenty years ago. Had I pretended to have made extracts at that age, they would have made a moſt whimſical appearance at this day. However, it is an excellent practice. It, by looking back, would ſerve to ſhew us to ourſelves, through every ſtage we paſs, and to remark the progreſs of our ſtrengthening judgment. It would give infinite pleaſure to the good and wiſe, and even to the innocently gay and volatile; and it might occaſion remorſe and penitence in the wicked; alſo improve the underſtanding of the weak.

"Though I reckon myſelf as happy at home as moſt people, yet I have a proſpect of receiving an addition to that happineſs, which I eſteem one of the greateſt this world can give, and which is, the converſation of a faithful, ſenſible, and worthily-eſteemed friend; one to whom I can impart every ſecret that my own heart knows; one who is a great admirer of you and your works; and one to whom, with your leave, I would give the peruſal of our whole correſpondence. It is the mother of my good young man, whoſe company I hope to enjoy for ſome months. Theſe ſeven years I have not ſeen her, our lots being caſt far diſtant from each other, which I often lament, not only on her account, but yours, Sir, who are always ſo good to wiſh me near you; and, next to the ſatisfaction I ſhould have in being ſo, is your kindly wiſhing for it. I am, with great ſincerity,

"Sir,

"Your much obliged, and faithful humble ſervant,

"D. BRADSHAIGH."

*** *In the next Number of the Imperial Review, we ſhall lay before our Readers an unpubliſhed Letter from Mr. Richardſon to his nephew. This letter, which has been in the poſſeſſion of a Friend upwards of thirty years, will hold up the character of Richardſon in a point of view, in which he has not been exhibited in the volumes that have now paſſed under our notice.*

ART. CXL. *An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of public Wealth, and into the Means and Cauſes of its Increaſe. By the Earl of Lauderdale.* pp. 482. Price 8*s.* 6*d.* Conſtable and Co., Edinburgh; Longman and Co., London. 1804.

IN a work ſo nearly reſembling in its title the celebrated treatiſe of Dr. Smith, and coming from a known friend to political and economical ſcience, we were naturally led to expect, that the important truths contained in the *Wealth of Nations* would be clearly and conciſely re-ſtated, its errors (for what human work is without?) candidly refuted, and new and valuable matter added, the reſult of the author's own reſearches, aided by the light thrown on this intereſting ſubject by other writers. In theſe expectations, we are ſorry to ſay, that we have been greatly diſappointed. But, not wiſhing to influence the public opinion by general comments, we ſhall endeavour to give ſuch a ſketch of the principal arguments contained in this "Inquiry," as will enable the reader to judge for himſelf.

After ſome preliminary obſervations on the obſcurity of language, the author proceeds, in the following words, to ſtate the object, and general contents of his work:

"As a clear underſtanding of the relation which Public Wealth and Individual Riches bear to each other, appears of the higheſt importance in ſecuring accuracy in every ſubject that relates to the ſcience of Political Economy; the firſt and ſecond chapters of this Inquiry are devoted to the conſideration of the nature of *Value*, the poſſeſſion of which alone qualifies any thing to form a portion of individual riches;—to an explanation of what Public Wealth is, and of what conſtitutes Individual Riches;—and to an examination of the relation in which they ſtand to each other.

"The meaning annexed in this work to the phraſe Public Wealth being thus explained, the third chapter contains an inveſtigation of the ſources of Wealth; in which, land, labour, and capital, are ſeparately treated as the ſources of wealth;—an opinion which, though it has been announced by ſome, and hinted at by others, does not ſeem to have made on any author ſo ſtrong an impreſſion as to be uniformly adhered to in the courſe of his reaſonings.

"An idea which has generally prevailed (though it ſeems in itſelf a paradox), that wealth may be increaſed by means by which it is not produced, in particular by parſimony, or deprivation of expenditure has made it neceſſary to inveſtigate this ſubject in the fourth chapter as a preliminary to an Inquiry into the means and cauſes of the increaſe of wealth, which is the object of the fifth chapter."

The firſt chapter contains a definition of value, and an inquiry into the poſſibility of an accurate meaſure of it. In his definition of the term, the author adopts a confined ſenſe of it. Dr. Smith, and the Economiſts, ſpeak of two ſorts of value,—a value in uſe, and a value in exchange; and the general language

guage of converſation ſeems to warrant this extended meaning. But the author confines the term excluſively to exchangeable value. To confer value, he ſays, two things are requiſite; "1. That the object, as being uſeful or delightful to man, ſhould be an object of his deſire; 2. That it ſhould exiſt in a degree of ſcarcity." This laſt attribute is certainly neceſſary to give an object value in exchange, though it does not affect its value in uſe.

The author proceeds to determine the cauſes which affect the variations of value; and obſerves, that if we could for a moment ſuppoſe any invariable ſtandard, then every commodity, compared with this ſtandard, "would be ſubject to a variation in its value from four different circumſtances:

"1. It would be ſubject to an increaſe of its value from a diminution of its quantity:

"2. To a diminution of its value from an augmentation of its quantity:

"3. It might ſuffer an augmentation in its value from the circumſtance of an increaſed demand:

"4. Its value might be diminiſhed from a failure of demand."

But if no ſuch ſtandard can be found, we can only ſelect one that appears leaſt liable to variation; and then the value of any commodity will vary in conſequence of eight different contingencies:

"1. From the four circumſtances above ſtated, in relation to the commodity of which we mean to expreſs the value:

"2. From the ſame four circumſtances, in relation to the commodity we have adopted as a meaſure of value."

Theſe propoſitions the author variouſly illuſtrates; and objects, with reaſon, to the poſition of Dr. Smith, that labour may be conſidered as a ſtandard meaſure of value. At the ſame time, we cannot approve of the manner in which he does this; nor do we think that he has ſtated the arguments of Dr. Smith fairly. When Dr. Smith aſſerts, that labour alone never varies in its value, he explains himſelf by ſaying, that he means *to the labourer*, not to the *purchaſer of the labour*. He obſerves, that "equal quantities of labour muſt, at all times and places, be of equal value to the labourer. He muſt always lay down the ſame portion of his eaſe, his liberty, and his happineſs. The price which he pays muſt always be the ſame, whatever may be the quantity of goods which he receives in return for it." This, and other explanations of a ſimilar tendency, the author does not advert to, but produces an unneceſſary ſtring of quotations to ſhew, what Dr. Smith never denies, that both the real and nominal price of labour vary at different times and places: and, in this way, Dr. Smith is made to contradict himſelf more

more than he really does. We are of opinion, however, that this ſacrifice of the eaſe, liberty, and happineſs of the labourer in labouring, even if it were allowed to be at all times of equal value, cannot in any way be applied as an invariable meaſure of the value of other commodities; though we are far from agreeing with the author, that labour is the worſt meaſure that could be choſen: nor do we ſee the very great abſurdity that Dr. Smith has been guilty of, in adopting this meaſure, on account of his having conſidered ſome ſorts of labour as unproductive. The portion of labour which is productive, and which is by far the largeſt portion, would certainly, with ſufficient accuracy, aſcertain the value of the remainder.

The author concludes his chapter with theſe two general principles:

"1. That things are alone valuable in conſequence of their uniting qualities, which make them the object of man's deſire, with the circumſtance of exiſting in a certain degree of ſcarcity,

"2. That the degree of value which every commodity poſſeſſes, depends upon the proportion between the quantity of it and the demand for it."

The firſt of theſe propoſitions is certainly true, according to the confined ſenſe in which the author uſes the term Value. The ſecond does not appear to us to be ſtated with ſufficient accuracy. There are, without doubt, inſtances of variations in price without any alteration in the demand and ſupply of the two objects actually compared. When commodities are ſold at the price of free competition, that is, at the loweſt price at which the ſellers can afford to bring them to market, they will often admit of an advanced price without any diminution whatever in demand; and this advance may take place in conſequence of an alteration in the price of ſome of the component parts of theſe commodities, although the commodities themſelves continue to be ſupplied in the ſame quantities, and the effectual demand remain undiminiſhed: conſequently, to make the principle accurately true, it appears to us neceſſary to add the conſideration of the demand and ſupply of all the ſeparate parts of which the two commodities are ſeverally compoſed. But in this ſhape the propoſition would be ſo complex and unmanageable, that, though true in theory, it would be of little uſe in practice. And, without adopting labour, or any other ſingle article, as an invariable meaſure of value, we ſhould ſtill be inclined to retain the conſideration of what Dr. Smith calls the natural price of commodities; that is, the price at which they can be afforded to be ſold after paying the rent, labour, and profit of production. When two commodities are compared, the portion of one which will exchange for a por-

tion of the other, ſo as mutually to repay all the coſts of production, may be conſidered as this natural price. The ſtate of this exchange expreſſes the reſult of the ſupply and demand of all the articles of which the two commodities are compoſed; and ſetting out from this point, it will then be true that the price of any commodity, or the portion of any other for which it will exchange, will be above or below this natural price, according as the ſupply and demand vary from that ſtate which exactly repays the coſt of production.

The ſecond chapter contains an inquiry into the nature of public wealth and individual riches, and the relation they bear to each other. The author begins by obſerving, that

"Though the advantages which all reaſoning on Political Economy muſt have derived from a clear explanation of what conſtitutes national or public wealth, are apparent; and though a preciſe underſtanding of what wealth is, ſeems a neceſſary preliminary to the diſcuſſing, with any degree of accuracy, the means of increaſing it; we muſt regret that a definition of public wealth is no where to be found."

"National wealth has by all been conſidered merely as made up of the riches of individuals belonging to the community; the capital of a ſociety has been regarded, in every reſpect, as the ſame with that of all the individuals who compoſe it; and the ſum total of the fortunes of individuals has been conceived to convey an accurate deſcription of the maſs of national wealth."

After endeavouring to ſhew, by various arguments and illuſtrations, the diſtinction between public wealth and individual riches, the author defines public wealth "to conſiſt of all that man deſires as uſeful or delightful to him;" and individual riches "to conſiſt of all that man deſires as uſeful or delightful to him, which exiſts in a degree of ſcarcity."

We were not aware that the ideas of thoſe who had turned their attention to theſe ſubjects had been hitherto ſo confuſed, reſpecting public and individual wealth, as the author ſeems here to repreſent. We thought that, of late years, it had been uſual to conſider national wealth as the produce of the land and labour of the country, and individual wealth, or riches, as the command of individuals over this produce. There are, certainly, ſome obvious objections to an eſtimate of national wealth, founded on the ſum total of individual fortunes; firſt, becauſe the fortune of a rich individual includes in it the fortunes of all his ſervants and labourers, and a part of the fortunes of all his tradeſmen, &c.; and, conſequently, would be reckoned more than once: ſecondly, becauſe the currency in which private fortunes are eſtimated, may repreſent, at different times and in different places, a very different command over

over thoſe conſumeable commodities which can alone form a part either of national or individual wealth. At the ſame time, we are of opinion, that national and individual wealth are much more nearly connected than the author ſeems to imagine; and as they appear to us to conſiſt of the ſame objects, we ſee no reaſon for diſtinguiſhing them by different names.

It is certainly true, that all thoſe objects which uſually enter into our conceptions, when we ſpeak of the riches of individuals, exiſt in a degree of ſcarcity; but the ſame may be ſaid of the wealth of nations. In comparing the wealth of England and of Sweden, the air and water, which are common to both, would probably not enter into our calculations. Strictly ſpeaking, however, we ſhould conceive that all the products of nature and art, in whatever degree of abundance or ſcarcity they may exiſt, form a part of public wealth: but the preciſe reaſon why they do ſo, is, becauſe they are conſumed and enjoyed by individuals, and thus compoſe a part of individual riches. If, in eſtimating the riches of individuals, we neglect the quantities poſſeſſed equally by all, we have the ſame reaſon to do ſo in eſtimating the wealth of nations. We have no particular objection to the author's definition of public wealth, though we doubt if it will contribute to render the general ideas on this ſubject more preciſe than before; but if this definition be adopted, we think, for the reaſons given above, that it ſhould be equally applied to expreſs individual riches or wealth; and we entirely differ from the author in thinking that the poſſeſſion of value, in the confined ſenſe in which he uſes the term, can alone qualify an object for becoming a part of individual riches, as diſtinguiſhed from public wealth.

It has always been conſidered as a matter of extreme difficulty to eſtimate, with any tolerable accuracy, the maſs of public wealth: and we are fortunately not called upon to enter into the queſtion, how far any approximations to ſuch an eſtimate could be made from calculations of the real riches of individuals,—the real quantity of conſumeable commodities which falls to the ſhare of each perſon. But, before we quit this ſubject, it is neceſſary that we ſhould advert particularly to ſome of the principal arguments by which the author ſupports and illuſtrates the diſtinction which he wiſhes to eſtabliſh between public wealth and individual riches.

The author ſuppoſes a country univerſally accommodated with the pureſt ſtreams of water; and aſks, "what opinion would be entertained of the underſtanding of a man who, as the means of increaſing the wealth of ſuch a country, ſhould

propoſe to create a ſcarcity of water? and yet ſuch a projector, he ſays, would ſucceed, by this means, in increaſing the maſs of individual riches, by a ſum equal to the fee ſimple of all the wells;" which would then be of high value.

We may aſk, in the ſame way, what opinion would be entertained of the underſtanding of a man who could ſuppoſe that ſuch a proceſs would really increaſe the maſs of individual riches? If every individual were obliged to make the ſame ſacrifice of fortune or labour to purchaſe water, which is now neceſſary to purchaſe food, it might be doubted whether mankind could continue to exiſt. The whole of their labour would be employed in obtaining meat and drink, and they would have none to ſpare for cloathing, houſes, and the other comforts and conveniences of life. And ſurely the maſs of individual riches would, in this caſe, be dreadfully diminiſhed. The author himſelf, indeed, appears to us moſt completely to have refuted this argument, even according to his own definition of individual wealth, by ſhewing, in a ſubſequent part of the preſent chapter, that a great and unuſual demand for any one article, by abſtracting ſo much demand from others, would impoveriſh, in a much greater degree, the proprietors of theſe latter articles, than it would enrich the proprietors of the article in requeſt.

As a further illuſtration of the diſtinction between public and private wealth, the author ſuppoſes as great an abundance of food as of water, which, he ſays, "would diminiſh the ſum total of individual riches to an extent equal to the value of that food which was deſtroyed by this abundance." This argument, alſo, it appears to us, the author himſelf has removed, by ſhewing that the price of all other commodities would immediately riſe. And we may further remark, that if food were in plenty, and all the labour now employed in producing it were employed on other objects, the maſs of individuals would be better clothed, better lodged, and would poſſeſs a much greater power than before, over all the comforts and luxuries of life; and thus the maſs of individual riches would be greatly increaſed, inſtead of diminiſhed. Inſtances will indeed occur, and ſome ſuch are produced, where, in a ſcarcity of any particular commodity, as of corn for example, the real fortunes of thoſe who poſſeſs this commodity are increaſed, and the nominal fortunes of all the other members of the ſociety remain the ſame: but after what the author has ſaid of the abſurdity of confounding wealth and money, we were by no means prepared to expect that he would conſider either individual riches, or public wealth, as conſiſting of money, without reference to the commodities which that money will purchaſe.

chaſe. The author almoſt univerſally adverts to the intereſts of the ſellers, rather than of the buyers: but it is the buyers that repreſent the maſs of individuals, and not the ſellers, for the obvious reaſon, that all men are conſumers, though all are not dealers in the objects of conſumption; and, conſequently, the riches of the conſumers will repreſent the maſs of individual riches, and not the riches of the dealers, ſtill leſs of any particular claſs of dealers.

Among other illuſtrations of his poſition, the author lays particular ſtreſs on what takes place at the beginning of a war in this country. He ſays, that individual riches are greatly diminiſhed, from the fall of the ſtocks, and other cauſes, while the national wealth remains preciſely the ſame. We cannot now diſcuſs the nature of the public funds, the intereſt of which alone, and not the capital, repreſents real riches; but agreeing with the author in thinking that the riches of individuals are diminiſhed by a war, we can in no reſpect agree with him that the national wealth remains the ſame. According to his own ſubſequent reaſoning, the new demand for warlike ſtores, &c. will occaſion ſuch an abſtraction of demand from other commodities, that many of theſe will lie on hand, unſaleable at the price of their production. Much of the labour, before employed in the productive occupations of agriculture and manufactures, will be expended in the unprofitable occupation of war; the ſources of future reproduction and future riches, will be, in the moſt marked manner, impaired: and though, at the moment, the ſame quantity of conſumeable commodities may exiſt in the country; yet the national wealth will be diminiſhed, juſt in the ſame manner as would the private wealth of a merchant, who, having the ſame quantity of goods by him as at other times, could not, from ſome ſudden alteration of demand, ſell them ſo as to continue his buſineſs with the ſame profit.

The remainder of this chapter conſiſts of remarks on the variations in the value of commodities, and in the order of expenditure ariſing from different ſtates of ſupply and demand; and here we meet with ſome juſt obſervations in the detail, though they tend, in our apprehenſion, as we have already obſerved, to contradict, rather than ſupport, the general principles which the author wiſhes to eſtabliſh.

The third chapter is intitled *Of the ſources of wealth*, which the author thinks have never yet been properly inveſtigated.—"Land, labour, and capital, are indeed the only ſources to which the origin of any part of our wealth has ever been aſcribed. But while ſome have eagerly contended that land is the ſole ſource of opulence, others have diſcovered

equal anxiety to attribute it to the operation of labour and capital." The prejudices of mankind, he says with reason, revolt at the opinions maintained by the followers of Quesnay; "and we derive from Dr. Smith *no assistance* in forming our opinions on this important subject; for he seems to have had no fixed ideas in relation to it." The author further observes, that "in treating of political economy, the science which professes to display and to teach the means of increasing the wealth of a state, it would seem that the first and most anxious object of inquiry ought to have been, what wealth is, and from what sources mankind derive it? for it appears impossible to discuss with precision the means of increasing any thing, without an accurate notion of its nature, and of its origin. Yet, if we regret the doctrine of the Economists, it is in vain we look for a decided and precise opinion upon the origin of wealth in any modern work on public economy."

We did not know that the writers on Political Economy were all so entirely ignorant of what wealth is; and we are far from agreeing with the author in thinking, that no assistance respecting its nature and source is to be derived from Dr. Smith. In taking different views, and treating different parts of his subject, he may sometimes have laid undue stress on the particular object immediately under contemplation; and this the author has endeavoured to show, not in a very candid manner, by a number of quotations. But this is a blemish, which in a long work it is most extremely difficult to avoid, and from which the short treatise at present under review, is the very opposite from being free. As a general description however of the sources of wealth, we approve of stating the three together,—land, labour, and capital; because the description, in this form, is more precise, and enables us better to compare the resources of different nations: but, strictly speaking, we are of opinion, in opposition to our author, that capital is a derivative rather than an original source of wealth; or at least, that it is certainly included in the produce of land and labour, of which it is a particular part.

In speaking of the followers of Quesnay, the author says, that they totally set aside labour and capital as sources of wealth. This we conceive to be a very incorrect statement of the opinions of the Economists; who universally maintain the productiveness of labour employed upon land, and the necessity of capital (*les depenses foncieres* and *les avances primitives et annuelles*) to improve and enrich the soil. Further on, mentioning an opinion of the Economists respecting abundance and high price, the author observes, that they are "two

"two things which Monſieur Queſnay, had he underſtood the nature of value, would have known to be no more capable of co-exiſtence than heat and cold." We would aſk the author, whether he does not think that almoſt all conſumeable commodities are in greater abundance in England than in Sweden; and yet in England they almoſt all bear a higher price. In a ſubſequent paſſage indeed, he himſelf ſpeaks of increaſed demand for commodities as maintaining *their value*, notwithſtanding their *abundance*. The author appears to us, in this and many other places, to take a moſt confined view of his ſubject, and to be thinking of the next market-day, inſtead of the general reſults of demand and ſupply. A ſtriking inſtance of this occurs to our recollection in a paſſage of the laſt chapter, which we omitted to notice. He there conſiders a proportional increaſe, both of ſupply and demand, as a very *improbable* caſe. It is ſo perhaps next Saturday, or even Saturday ſe'nnight; but in an enlarged view of the queſtion, which was the view that his ſubject required him to take, it is a matter of continual occurrence, and muſt neceſſarily be ſo, if, as he himſelf repeatedly ſtates, demand will always regulate ſupply.

In proceeding to diſcuſs, ſeparately, the three great ſources of wealth, he reprobates the mode in which Dr. Smith has controverted that poſition of the Economiſts, which repreſents manufacturing labour as unproductive; but he does not ſubſtitute any luminous argument of his own: and in one place he appears to us to adopt the very ſame mode of reaſoning*, which he had juſt before ſo ſeverely condemned in Dr. Smith. He then attacks Dr. Smith for the diſtinction made between productive and unproductive labour in the Wealth of Nations, which he ſays is not more conſonant to reaſon than the diſtinction of the Economiſts. He endeavours to ſhew that, according to Dr. Smith's definition,

"The ſame labour may appear either productive or unproductive, according to the uſe ſubſequently made of the commodity on which it was beſtowed. If my cook, for example, makes a tart which I immediately conſume, he is conſidered as an unproductive labourer, and the act of making the tart as unproductive labour; becauſe *that ſervice has periſhed at the moment of its performance:* but if the ſame labour is performed in a paſtrycook's ſhop, it becomes productive labour; becauſe *it is a quantity of labour ſtocked and ſtored up, to be employed, if neceſſary, upon ſome other occaſion; the price of it, if neceſſary, can afterwards put in motion a quantity of labour equal to that which had originally produced it.* Again; a piece of cloth burnt immediately after it was formed, would inevitably beſtow, according to this definition, the character of unpro-

 ductive

* Page 16.

ductive on the labour of the cloth-manufacturer. Thus a tart being placed in a cook's shop, would give to the labour of the cook the character of productive; and the cloth being put in the fire, bestows that of unproductive on the labour of the manufacturer."

We are really almost ashamed to answer such petty cavilling and wilful misapprehensions. But the answer is obvious. According to Dr. Smith's definition, the character of the labour in no respect depends upon the use that may accidentally be made of the commodity on which such labour is bestowed, as the author asserts; but on the question whether there really is any commodity produced, which may either be put to an immediate use, or be the subject of future exchange. The tart is evidently such a commodity, and the character of the labour which produced it remains unchanged, whether the author eat it immediately himself, or sell it. It is obviously and essentially distinct from the labour of the man who rides after him in the park; in which case, when the service is accomplished, nothing whatever remains to be disposed of according to his will, whether it be to eat, sell, or burn.

The author however asserts, that all labour is productive; a position which he might fairly have maintained if he had confined himself to the application of his first general definition of wealth, instead of exposing himself by his very unsuccessful attacks on other writers. But without entering into the general question, we shall only observe, that though he here affirms that all kinds of labour are productive, yet in his general description, of the means of augmenting wealth, at the end of his work, we do not find included that kind of labour which Dr. Smith has denominated unproductive.

The author proceeds to consider Capital, of which he certainly takes a very contracted and incorrect view. In every instance in which capital is employed so as to produce a profit, he says, it uniformly arises, either—"*from its supplanting a portion of labour which would otherwise be performed by the hand of man;* or—"*from its performing a portion of labour which is beyond the reach of the personal exertion of man to accomplish.*

We have no objection to the term *supplanting labour*, as applied to machinery; though we by no means see, with the author, any absurdity or incorrectness in the terms used by Dr. Smith: but however the author may endeavour to twist his definition to his purpose, yet it cannot apply with any tolerable clearness and precision to the other two equally important branches of capital,—raw materials, and wages. It is clear, however, that not only in his definition, but in his illustrations of it, he neglects the consideration of that absolutely necessary and most extensive part of capital,—the subsistence

ſiſtence of the workman, or wages; and it is apparently owing to this very confined mode of viewing the ſubject, that he rejects the juſt poſition of Dr. Smith, that capital ſets in motion productive labour. But our limits abſolutely forbid us entering into this detail; and we muſt haſten to make a few remarks on ſome novel inferences in the next chapter, which the author's peculiar mode of conſidering Capital has led him to draw.

The fourth chapter is intitled, "*Of the poſſibility of increaſing wealth by any other means than thoſe by which it is produced.* And here, if we had before any doubts whether the author could ſo twiſt his definition as to include all the branches of capital, the point is made perfectly clear by his expreſsly diſtinguiſhing, in deſcribing a farm, the *ſtock* reſerved for immediate and remote conſumption, from the *capital*, which he ſays conſiſts in the animals or machines employed to ſupplant labour in the cultivation of the farm, or in the convenient conſumption of its produce. The object of the author is to ſhow, that the wealth of a nation cannot be increaſed by parſimony, or the ſaving from revenue to add to capital; and his mode of proving this, is, to confine his view of capital almoſt excluſively to machinery, which ſupplants labour; and it will then follow of courſe, that there are limits beyond which the further increaſe of capital would be uſeleſs. He repreſents the increaſe of a farmer's capital as an acquiſition of a larger quantity of labouring cattle than he could uſefully employ, and an accumulation of a hoard of ſpades, ploughs, and other utenſils of huſbandry, infinitely greater than he could uſe. But who beſides the author ever conceived ſo ſtrange an idea, as that the operation of parſimony related only to one branch of capital? Has he ever found ſuch an effect of ſaving, as he deſcribes, in practice? Many farmers have been known to grow rich from ſmall beginnings; but we never heard of one who employed his increaſed capital in accumulating an unneceſſary quantity of ſpades and ploughs. And yet ſuch is the author's illuſtration of the effects of what he calls the baneful paſſion of accumulation!!! And he goes on through many pages ſeriouſly to talk about the abſtraction of demand from other commodities, occaſioned by this unuſual demand for ſpades and ploughs, as more than counterbalancing the encouragement to the blackſmith, carpenter, &c. &c. &c.; and concludes that the public muſt ſuffer in two ways: "1. By the creation of a quantity of capital more than is requiſite;"—always repreſenting capital under the image of ſpades and ploughs: 2. "By abſtracting a portion of encouragement to future reproduction:"—theſe two heads

he

be treats ſeparately. We ſcarcely ever recollect to have met with ſo ſtrange an inſtance of miſconception and perverted reaſoning.

Reſuming however the ſubject, which, on account of his novel mode of viewing it, he ſeems unwilling to drop, he ſays, that the ſecond branch of the property of a farmer, namely, "the ſtock he reſerves for immediate conſumption, under which is comprehended the produce of his farm, whether vegetable or animal," is that branch of the property of mankind which alone appears capable of unlimited increaſe. And yet it is certainly this branch of capital that is the moſt limited, and that principally regulates and limits the increaſe of the other two. Man has a much more unlimited command over the raw materials of manufactures, and machinery, than he has over the ſubſiſtence of the labourer. But whatever may be his power in this reſpect, we may be quite ſure that none but a madman will accumulate raw materials and machinery, without the ſubſiſtence of the workmen, who can alone put them to their appropriate uſe. No ſum of money is capital to the extent of its nominal amount, unleſs it be convertible into all the branches of which capital conſiſts, each in its due proportion. And if it be ſo convertible, we cannot for a moment doubt the poſition of Dr. Smith, that capital ſets in motion productive labour, and that the quantity of productive labour in any country will be in proportion to the extent of ſuch capital. In the progreſs of a nation towards great opulence and population, it will however probably happen, that one or other of the branches of capital will become comparatively ſcarce. The ſcarcity of this one will regulate the increaſe of the other two. In this caſe, a certain increaſe of nominal capital will not repreſent a command, to the ſame extent, over real capital; but the different parts will ſtill be accumulated in their due proportions; and however rich a nation may grow, it has no reaſon whatever to partake in the author's apprehenſions, that it is in danger of ſinking under accumulated hoards of uſeleſs machinery.

As the author has taken ſo very partial and incorrect a view of capital in general, we have leſs reaſon to fear the effects of his reaſoning, or the otherwiſe dangerous topic, of decrying the parſimony of governments, and reprobating all their attempts to pay their debts. The capital of the public debt of this country no where exiſts in the form of real capital; it has been gradually conſumed, without return, by the government; and the intereſt only repreſents or is convertible into a proportionate quantity of real riches. Such a debt cannot, from its nature, be ſuddenly diſcharged ſo as to increaſe the active capital

capital of the nation, by a quantity equal to the nominal amount of the debt; but as the intereſt, which is repreſented by a certain portion of the annual produce of the country is generally conſumed by a claſs of people which reproduces little or nothing, it becomes a matter of the higheſt importance to prevent the rapid increaſe of this claſs, and to reſtore to agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, the capital of which they are thus deprived.

A great number of idle conſumers is a clear proof of great wealth,—of a large ſurplus produce; but ſuch a number in itſelf tends to impoveriſh a ſtate; and there muſt evidently be a limit beyond which the increaſe of this claſs muſt trench on the ſources of reproduction. The effect of a ſinking fund, or of that accumulation ſo much reprobated by the author, ſeems to be, by a ſacrifice of a part of individual incomes, ſpent perhaps, principally on menial ſervants, horſes kept for pleaſure, &c. &c. either to check the increaſe of this idle claſs, as in time of war; or actually to transfer that produce which had before been employed in the payment of unproductive conſumers, to labourers in agriculture and manufactures, as on the return of peace.

The author's great apprehenſion is from the abſtraction of demand occaſioned by this ſaving of income. He ſays, that if an extraordinary ſum were levied by the government to defray the charge of warfare, or any other ſuch expenditure, the conſumption of government would then counteract the effect of the parſimony it renders neceſſary in the ſubject, and no miſchief would enſue except from the change in the order of expenditure occaſioned by the demand for one claſs of commodities. But that, if the ſame kind of ſaving were to be made without ſuch a vent for it, the moſt dreadful miſchiefs might be apprehended, unleſs the proprietors of ſtock could be perſuaded to ruin themſelves in order to counteract the bad effects of this miſerly policy in the government. In this curious reaſoning, the author ſeems quite to forget that labourers and manufacturers, ſome of whom earn above a guinea a week, conſume, as well as ſoldiers and ſailors, and that maſter manufacturers and merchants often live as handſomely as ſtockholders. The converſion of a part of the national income into capital, would not diminiſh conſumption, though it would increaſe production: and if this increaſed quantity of productions could not find a wider market at home, they would probably find vent abroad, and increaſe our foreign exports. That, under ſuch circumſtances, the intereſt of money and the profits of ſtock would ſink, cannot be doubted; but if ſome capitals, on this account, went abroad,

abroad, a much greater number than at preſent would ſtill be employed at home in all the branches of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce: and it is a ſtrange argument to urge that we ſhould keep ourſelves always poor, and in debt, from the fear that if we were in a more flouriſhing condition, other nations might profit by our riches.

The abundance of capital tends always to raiſe the wages of labour, and lower the profits of ſtock. In the price of the wrought commodity, theſe two oppoſite effects might perhaps nearly balance each other; but it is evident that all wrought commodities would be cheaper in proportion to the price of labour, and conſequently, that the great maſs of the people who live by the wages of labour would be in better circumſtances, and would therefore conſume more. The increaſe of population, which would probably follow, would ſtill further increaſe conſumption, and the additional capital which we may naturally preſume would be employed upon the land, owing to the low rate of intereſt, would, by increaſing the means of ſubſiſtence, tend to make the whole increaſe of capital real, and not nominal, and conſequently capable of continually putting in motion an increaſed quantity of productive labour. The inconvenience of a few who could not get ſuch an intereſt for their money as would enable them to live idly, ought not for a moment to be put in competition with ſuch advantages to the nation, and to the maſs of individuals. At all events, we may reſerve our compaſſion for the ſtockholders, and our fears for the too rapid payment of the debt, till ſome real progreſs has been made in its liquidation, and the inconveniences apprehended have been actually felt.

The fifth, and laſt, chapter is intitled, "*Of the means of augmenting wealth*;" and we expected, of courſe, the author's inſtructions how to effect this important object: but, after ſome unſucceſsful cavils at Dr. Smith, reſpecting the diviſion of labour, we are brought, by a tedious proceſs, to the concluſion, that the production of wealth depends upon the diſtribution of wealth. As, however, we are not taught how to influence this diſtribution, we do not ſee that we are in any degree advanced in our knowledge reſpecting the means of augmenting wealth. But we have already extended this article ſo much, that we are abſolutely precluded from entering into further details. The author's inquiries do not appear to have conducted him to any concluſions which will be conſidered as valuable additions to our ſtock of political truths. The reſults which he enumerates at the end of this chapter appear to us either old, untrue, or unimportant.

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The work is in no reſpect well written: but what we moſt particularly object to, is, the manner in which the author cavils at other writers, and the important tone which he aſſumes in ſpeaking of the ſtate of political and economical knowledge before the appearance of his own work. Had he eſtabliſhed every poſition which he has attempted, ſuch a tone would have been indecorous: but as he has very rarely indeed ſucceeded in theſe attempts, it has a moſt powerful tendency to prejudice the reader againſt his work; and, ſhould he continue his inquiries, we moſt earneſtly recommend him to avoid it in future.

ART. CXLI. *Travels in China; containing Deſcriptions, Obſervations, and Compariſons, made and collected in the courſe of a ſhort Reſidence at the Imperial Palace of Yuen-min-Yuen; and on a ſubſequent Journey through the Country from Pekin to Canton. In which it is attempted to appreciate the Rank that this extraordinary Empire may be conſidered to hold in the Scale of civilized Nations. By John Barrow, Eſq. late Private Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, and one of his Suit as Ambaſſador from the King of Great Britain to the Emperor of China. Illuſtrated with ſeveral Engravings.* 4to. pp. 632; price 2 *l.* 12 *s.* 6 *d.* Cadell and Davies, London. 1804.

IT is, as Mr. Barrow in his title-page ſays, "the lot of few to go to Pekin;" but from that few, who fortunately went out in Lord Macartney's Embaſſy, we have had ſeveral detailed Accounts of what they ſaw and experienced in the courſe of their voyage, and during their reſidence in China. The public, as well as ourſelves, would at firſt be ſurpriſed to ſee announced Mr. Barrow's Travels ſo many years after the termination of the expedition, and after Sir George Staunton had favoured the world with his "Account of the Embaſſy." Indeed Mr. B. himſelf ſeems to be fully aware that it would be an idle and ſuperfluous undertaking, in any perſon who accompanied the Embaſſy, to dwell on thoſe ſubjects which have been treated by Sir George in ſo maſterly a manner, or to recapitulate thoſe incidents and tranſactions which he has already detailed.

From the nature of Sir George Staunton's plan, there muſt be many ſubjects on which he could barely touch, but into which, any other perſon who ſhould mark out for himſelf a different tract, might enter minutely. The account given by the worthy and indefatigable baronet, extended to whatever related to the Embaſſy, whether in the voyage out, their reſidence abroad, or in their return to the ſhores of their native

tive country. Mr. B. confines himself to narrower limits, his object is to describe whatever he thought worthy of attention in China; to unfold to his countrymen the manners and customs of a people, with whom, from the nature of their government, they could be little acquainted, and to endeavour to appreciate the real character which they maintain in the world. It may also be observed, that Sir George wrote immediately upon his return; but the author before us, by waiting to the present period, has been enabled to consider the various objects that presented themselves to him with that sort of precision which will give weight to his reflections, and set a value on his judgment.

Mr. B. feeling the disadvantages to which his work will be subject, advertizes his readers, that it may occasionally be necessary to refer to the same facts that have already been noticed by his precursor; but whenever this happens, he promises that they shall be briefly repeated, and for the purpose only of illustrating some position, or for deducing some general inference.

In carefully reviewing the work which is now laid before the public, and comparing it, as well as our memory will allow, with Sir George Staunton's volumes, we certainly recollect some circumstances which have been already noticed by that writer, yet they are few in comparison of the great mass of facts which are given under the various heads to which Mr. B. has very properly referred them. The great object of Sir George Staunton was, undoubtedly, to unfold the nature of the Embassy, to shew the views with which it was undertaken, the manner in which it was conducted, and to account for the causes of its failure; whereas Mr. B. professes that his chief aim is to exhibit the Chinese in their proper colours, and to endeavour to draw such a sketch of the manners, the state of society, the language, literature, and fine arts, the sciences and civil institutions, the religious worship and opinions, the population and progress of agriculture, the civil and moral character of the people, as may enable his countrymen to appreciate the rank which China may be considered as holding in the scale of civilized nations. Sir George, therefore, may be regarded as writing in the character of a politician; but Mr. Barrow's work is the production of a philosopher; —of a man who, whether in Europe, in Africa, or in Asia, shews himself an accurate observer of human nature, and capable of drawing just inferences from the various facts that are presented to his notice.

The volume before us is divided into chapters; the first of which is devoted to certain preliminary subjects; in the discussion

cuſſion of theſe, Mr. B. wiſhes to correct ſome erroneous notions which were taken up and circulated with regard to the Britiſh Embaſſy; and he infers, that the trifling expence which it occaſioned to the Eaſt-India Company, will be more than counterbalanced by the advantages which may be expected from this intercourſe. In anſwer to thoſe who had expected a different reſult from the Embaſſy, and who complain of the ſhortneſs of the time allotted to our countrymen for a reſidence in the capital of China, our author refers to the ſeveral embaſſies that have been ſent to China by European courts during the laſt two centuries: of theſe, three were ſent by the Dutch; two from Ruſſia; one by the Pope; one by the Portugueſe; and one by the Britiſh, in which Mr. Barrow acted a conſpicuous part: and we are informed by him, that it is the cuſtom in China "to receive embaſſadors with reſpect and hoſpitality; to conſider them as viſitors to the emperor, and to entertain them accordingly as his particular gueſts, from the moment they enter the country till they return to the boundaries of his empire. This being neceſſarily attended with an enormous expence, the court of ceremonies has preſcribed forty days for the reſidence of foreign embaſſadors, either in the capital, or wherever the court may happen to be; though on particular occaſions, or by accident, the term may ſometimes be extended to nearly double that time."

The ſecond chapter is occupied by occurences and obſervations in the navigation of the Yellow Sea, and the paſſage up the Pei-ho, or White-ſea, which was before entirely unknown to any European nation:

"At the ſight of our large ſhips, ſo different in their appearance from any of thoſe belonging to the Chineſe, a vaſt number of boats, iſſuing from every creek and cove, preſently crowded together, in ſuch a manner, and with ſo little management, as to render it difficult to paſs through without danger of overſetting or ſinking ſome of them; a danger, however, to which they ſeemed quite inſenſible. Veſſels of a larger deſcription, and various in the ſhape of their hulls and rigging, from twenty tons burden and upwards, to about two hundred tons, were obſerved in conſiderable numbers, ſailing along the coaſt of the continent, laden generally with ſmall timber, which was piled to ſuch a height upon their decks, that no extraordinary force of wind would ſeem to be required to overturn them. Beams of wood, and other pieces that were too long to be received upon the deck of a ſingle ſhip, were laid acroſs the decks of two veſſels laſhed together. We ſaw at leaſt a hundred couple thus laden in one fleet, keeping cloſe in with the coaſt, in order to be ready, in caſe of bad weather, to put into the neareſt port, being ill calculated to reſiſt a ſtorm at ſea. The ſhips indeed that

that are deſtined for longer voyages appear, from their ſingular conſtruction, to be very unfit to contend with the tempeſtuous ſeas of China. The general form of the hull, or body of the ſhip, above water, is that of the moon when about four days old. The bow, or fore-part, is not rounded as in ſhips of Europe, but is a ſquare flat ſurface, the ſame as the ſtern, without any projecting piece of wood, uſually known by the name of cutwater, and without any keel. On each ſide of the bow a large circular eye is painted, in imitation, I ſuppoſe, of that of a fiſh. The two ends of the ſhip riſe to a prodigious height above the deck. Some carry two, ſome three, and others four maſts. Each of theſe conſiſts of a ſingle piece of wood, and conſequently not capable of being occaſionally reduced in length, as thoſe of European ſhips. The diameter of the mainmaſt of one of the larger kind of Chineſe veſſels, ſuch as trade to Batavia, is not leſs than that of an Engliſh man of war of ſixty-four guns. And it is fixed in a bed of maſſive timber laid acroſs the deck. On each maſt is a ſingle ſail of matting, made from the fibres of the bamboo, and ſtretched by means of poles of that reed, running acroſs, at the diſtance of about two feet from each other. Theſe ſails are frequently made to furl and unfurl like a fan. When well hoiſted up and braced almoſt fore and aft, or parallel with the ſides of the ſhip, a Chineſe veſſel will ſail within three and a half, or four points of the wind; but they loſe all this advantage over ſhips of Europe by their drifting to leeward, in conſequence of the round and clumſy ſhape of the bottom, and their want of keel. The rudder is ſo placed, in a large opening of the ſtern, that it can occaſionally be taken up, which is generally done on approaching ſand and ſhallows."

Mr. Barrow infers from a variety of facts, that the Chineſe are equally unſkilled in naval architecture, as in the art of navigation. They keep no reckoning at ſea, and have no means of aſcertaining the latitude and longitude of any place. Their preſent ſyſtem is to keep as near the ſhore as poſſible; and never to loſe ſight of land unleſs in voyages to Japan, Batavia, and Cochin China. The voyage to Batavia is attended with ſo much danger, that ten or twelve thouſand ſubjects from the port of Canton alone are reckoned to periſh annually by ſhipwreck. This is not altogether owing to the unſkilfulneſs of the Chineſe ſeamen; but depends much on the hurricanes, which ſometimes blow with ſuch ſtrength, that, if credit be given to an intelligent commander of one of the Eaſt India Company's ſhips, were it poſſible to blow ten thouſand trumpets, and beat as many drums, on the forecaſtle of an Indiaman, neither the ſound of the one or the other would be heard by a perſon on quarter-deck of the ſame ſhip.

"When a ſhip leaves this port on a foreign voyage, it is conſidered as an equal chance that ſhe will never return; and when the

event proves favourable, a general rejoicing takes place among the friends of all thoſe who had embarked in the hazardous enterprize. Some of theſe ſhips are not leſs than a thouſand tons burden, and contain half that number of ſouls, beſides the paſſengers that leave their country, in the hope of making their fortunes in Batavia and Manilla. A ſhip is ſeldom the concern of one man. Sometimes forty or fifty, or even a hundred different merchants, purchaſe a veſſel, and divide her into as many compartments as there are partners, ſo that each knows his own particular place in the ſhip, which he is at liberty to fit up and to ſecure as he pleaſes. He ſhips his goods, and accompanies them in perſon, or ſends his ſon, or a near relation; for it rarely happens that they will truſt each other with property, where no family connexion exiſts. Each ſleeping-place is juſt the length and breadth of a man, and contains only a ſmall mat, ſpread on the floor, and a pillow. Behind the compaſs is generally placed a ſmall temple, with an altar, on which is continually kept burning a ſpiral taper compoſed of wax, tallow, and ſandal-wood duſt. This holy flame anſwers a double purpoſe; for while the burning of it fulfils an act of piety, its twelve equal diviſions ſerve to meaſure the twelve portions of time which make up a complete day. It ſhould ſeem that the ſuperſtitious notions inculcated in the people have led them to ſuppoſe, that ſome particular influence reſides in the compaſs; for, on every appearance of a change in the weather, they burn incenſe before the magnetic needle."

Mr. B. has, in his account of travels in Africa, compared the Chineſe with the Hottentots. In the volume before us, he carries the compariſon ſtill farther, and is convinced that there is a near reſemblance in their mental as well as phyſical qualities. To the arguments which he now brings in defence of this opinion, he ſubjoins the portraits of a Hottentot and a Chineſe, in order that the readers may judge for themſelves how far the reſemblance marked by him is, or is not, altogether fanciful. Notwithſtanding the fairneſs and candour with which our author treats this ſubject, yet we are not diſpoſed to agree perfectly with his concluſion: ſtronger arguments, or, rather, facts more concluſive, muſt be brought together before we can aſſent to the propoſition that the Chineſe and Hottentots are derived from the ſame ſtock. The picture which Mr. B. has drawn of the habits of uncleanlineſs (page 76-7) among the Chineſe, might, by ſome of our readers, be conſidered as another argument in defence of his theory, did we copy the deſcription: but as a Review is deſtined to fall into the hands of perſons of all deſcriptions, we ſhall ever avoid tranſcribing into the pages of this Journal what might be offenſive to delicacy, as well as injurious to morality. The impreſſion made upon our travellers, ſoon after their arrival in China, will afford the reader amuſement and inſtruction:

" Nothing that could convey the idea of extraordinary wealth or comfort among the inhabitants, or of extraordinary abundance and fertility in the country (unleſs in the copious ſupplies of our proviſions), had yet occurred, either at Chu-ſan, or in the firſt three days' ſail up the Pei-ho towards the capital. The land on both ſides was low and flat, and, inſtead of hedge-rows, trenches were dug to mark the boundaries of property. A ſmall proportion only was under cultivation. The greater part appeared to be ſour ſwampy ground, covered with coarſe graſs, with ruſhes, and the common reed. There were few trees, except near the villages, which were of mean appearance, the houſes generally conſiſting of mud walls, one ſtory in height, and thatched with ſtraw or ruſhes. Here and there a ſolitary cottage intervened, but nothing that bore any reſemblance to the reſidence of a gentleman, or that could even be called a comfortable farm-houſe. And although villages were numerous, no aſſemblage of houſes were perceived, that properly could be claſſed under the name of a town, except that of See-Koo, near the mouth of the river, and Ja-koo, a few miles higher, until we proceeded to the diſtance of about ninety miles, when we entered the ſuburbs of the large city of Jienſing, ſtretching, like London on the Thames, for ſeveral miles along each bank of the river Pei-ho. But neither the buildings nor the river would bear any compariſon, even with thoſe parts about Redriffe and Wapping. Every thing, in fact, that we had hitherto ſeen, wore an air of poverty and meanneſs. After a long confinement on board a ſhip, to thoſe, at leaſt, who are not accuſtomed to it, almoſt any country appears to poſſeſs the charms of a Paradiſe; yet, on our firſt landing in this celebrated empire to the preſent place, which is no great diſtance from the capital, I am perſuaded that every individual of the embaſſy felt himſelf rather diſappointed in the expectations he had formed. If any thing excited admiration, it was the vaſt multitudes of people that, from our firſt arrival, had daily flocked down to the banks of the river, of both ſexes, and of all ages. Their general appearance, however, was not ſuch as to indicate any extraordinary degree of happineſs or comfort. The beſt-dreſſed men wore a ſort of velvet cap on their heads; a ſhort jacket, buttoned cloſe round the neck, and folded acroſs the breaſt, the ſleeves remarkably wide; the materials cotton cloth, black, blue, or brown ſilk, or European camblet: they wore quilted petticoats, and black ſattin boots.—The common people were dreſſed in large ſtraw hats, blue or black cotton frocks, wide cotton trowſers, and thick clumſy ſhoes, ſometimes made of ſtraw. Some had coarſe ſtockings of cotton cloth; the legs of others were naked. A ſingle pair of drawers conſtituted, indeed, the whole clothing of a great portion of the crowd.

From the third chapter, which is deſcriptive of a journey through the capital to a country villa belonging to the Emperor, we might extract much amuſing matter; but we ſhall merely tranſcribe a ſhort account of Pekin:

" Although

"Although the approach to Pekin afforded little that was intereſting, we had no ſooner paſſed the gate, and opened out the broad ſtreet, than a very ſingular and novel appearance was exhibited. We ſaw before us a line of buildings on each ſide of a wide ſtreet, conſiſting entirely of ſhops and warehouſes, the particular goods of which were brought out, and diſplayed in groups in front of the houſes. Before theſe were generally erected large wooden pillars, whoſe tops were much higher than the eaves of the houſes, bearing inſcriptions in gilt characters, ſetting forth the nature of the wares to be ſold, and the honeſt reputation of the ſeller; and, to attract the more notice, they were generally hung with various-coloured flags and ſtreamers, and ribbands from top to bottom, exhibiting the appearance of a line of ſhipping dreſſed, as we ſometimes ſee them, in the colours of all the different nations in Europe. The ſides of the houſes were not leſs brilliant in the ſeveral colours with which they were painted, conſiſting, generally, of ſky-blue or green, mixed with gold: and what appeared to us ſingular enough, the articles for ſale, that made the greateſt ſhow, were coffins for the dead. The moſt ſplendid of our coffin furniture would make but a poor figure, if placed beſide that intended for a wealthy Chineſe. Theſe machines are ſeldom leſs than three inches thick, and twice the bulk of ours. Next to thoſe, our notice was attracted by the brilliant appearance of the funeral biers, and the marriage cars, both covered with ornamental canopies.

"At the four points where the great ſtreets interſect one another, were erected thoſe ſingular buildings, ſometimes of ſtone, but generally of wood, which have been called triumphal arches, but which, in fact, are monuments to the memory of thoſe who had deſerved well of the community, or who had attained an unuſual longevity. They conſiſt, invariably, of a large central gateway, with a ſmaller one on each ſide, all covered with narrow roofs; and, like the houſes, they are painted, varniſhed, and gilt in the moſt ſplendid manner.

"The multitude of moveable workſhops of tinkers and barbers, coblers and blackſmiths; the tents and booths where tea and fruit, rice, and other eatables were expoſed for ſale, with the wares and merchandize arranged before the doors, had contracted this ſpacious ſtreet to a narrow road in the middle, juſt wide enough for two of our little vehicles to paſs each other. The cavalcade of officers and ſoldiers that preceded the Embaſſy; the proceſſions of men in office, attended by their numerous retinues, bearing umbrellas and flags, painted lanterns, and a variety of ſtrange inſignia of their rank and ſtation; different trains that were accompanying, with lamentable cries, corpſes to their graves, and, with ſqualling muſic, brides to their huſbands; the troops of dromedaries, laden with coals from Tartary; the wheel-barrows and hand-carts ſtuffed with vegetables, occupied nearly the whole of this middle ſpace in one continued line, leaving very little room for the cavalcade of the Embaſſy to paſs. All was in motion. The ſides of the ſtreet were filled with an immenſe concourſe of people, buying and ſelling and bar-

tering their different commodities. The buz and confuſed noiſes of this mixed multitude, proceeding from the loud bawling of thoſe who were crying their wares; the wrangling of others, with, every now and then, a ſtrange twanging noiſe, like the jarring of a cracked Jew's harp; the barber's ſignal, made by his tweezers; the mirth and the laughter that prevailed in every groupe; could ſcarcely be exceeded by the brokers in the Bank rotunda, or by the Jews and old women in Roſemary-lane. Pedlars with their packs, and jugglers, and conjurers, and fortune-tellers, mountebanks and quack-doctors, comedians and muſicians, left no ſpace unoccupied. The Tartar ſoldiers, with their whips, kept, with difficulty, a clear paſſage for the Embaſſy to move ſlowly forwards; ſo ſlow, indeed, that although we entered the eaſtern gate at half paſt nine, it was near twelve before we arrived at the weſtern."

In the fourth chapter, is given a ſketch of the ſtate of ſociety in China, including an account of the manners, cuſtoms, ſentiments, and moral character of the people. From this we learn, that, in the lower claſſes, the women drag the plough, while their huſbands only direct it; and, in the general conduct of life, the female ſex is doomed to laborious employments, while the men live in idleneſs, or paſs their time in gaming. In higher life, a woman muſt neither eat at the ſame table, nor ſit in the ſame room with her huſband: and the male children, at the age of nine or ten, are entirely ſeparated from their ſiſters. To beguile the many tedious and heavy hours, that muſt unavoidably occur to the ſecluded females, totally unqualified for mental purſuits, the tobacco-pipe is the uſual expedient. Every female, from the age of eight or nine years, wears a ſmall ſilken purſe, or pocket, to hold tobacco and a pipe, with the uſe of which many of them are not unacquainted at this tender age. Some, indeed, are employed in embroidery on ſilk, or in painting on gauze; but theſe are generally the wives and daughters of tradeſmen and artificers.

Mr. B. makes ſome ſpirited remarks on the vices to which the Chineſe are given: but from drunkenneſs, he ſays, the great bulk of the people are entirely free. Among the multitudes which he daily ſaw, in paſſing from one extremity of the country to the other, he never met with a ſingle inſtance of a man being diſguiſed in liquor. Whenever a few Chineſe happen to meet together, it is generally for the purpoſe of gaming, or to eat a kettle of boiled rice, or drink a pot of tea, or ſmoke a pipe of tobacco.

In China they have no day ſet apart for religious worſhip. Their acts of devotion partake of the ſame ſolitary caſt that prevails in their domeſtic life. Among none of the different ſects

of religion has congregational worſhip been inculcated, which, to that country, may be conſidered as a great misfortune:

"For, independent of religious conſiderations, the ſabbatical inſtitution is attended with advantages of a phyſical as well as of a moral nature; and humanity is not leſs concerned than policy in conſecrating one day out of ſeven, or ſome other given number, to the ſervice of the great Creator, and to reſt from bodily labour. When the government of France, in the height of her rage for innovation, fell into the hands of atheiſtical demagogues; when her temples were polluted, and every thing ſacred was invaded and profaned, the ſeventh day was conſidered as a relic of ancient ſuperſtition, and the obſervance of it accordingly aboliſhed; and, about the ſame time, it became the faſhion among a certain deſcription of people to uſe ſpecious arguments againſt its continuance in our own country; as being, for example, a day for the encouragement of idleneſs, drunkenneſs, and diſſipation. Such a remark could only be applied to large cities and towns; and in crowded manufacturing towns the mechanic, who can ſubſiſt by working three days in the week, would be at no loſs in finding opportunities, were there no Sabbath-day, in the courſe of the other four to commit irregularities. And who, even for the ſake of the mechanic and artificer, would wiſh to ſee the labouring peaſant deprived of one day's reſt, out of ſeven, which, to him, is more precious than the wages he has hardly earned the other ſix? What man, poſſeſſed of common feelings of humanity, in beholding the decent and modeſt huſbandman, accompanied by his family, in their beſt attire, attending the pariſh-church, does not participate in the ſmile of content which, on this day particularly, beams on his countenance, and beſpeaks the ſerenity of his mind? Having, on this day, diſcharged his duty to God, refreſhed his body with reſt, enjoyed the comfort of clean clothing, and exerciſed his mind in converſing with his neighbours, he returns, with double vigour, to his daily labour; having, as Mr. Addiſon obſerves, in one of his Spectators, rubbed off the ruſt of the week."

Theſe obſervations bear evidence to Mr. B.'s attention, not only to the manners and cuſtoms of the people among whom he occaſionally reſides, but to what human nature is, and what it requires as the foundation for happineſs and moral order. With glowing indignation, he deſcribes the horrid practice of infanticide, which, in China, is tolerated by cuſtom, and even encouraged by government. In the capital only, he reckons that there are not many ſhort of nine thouſand infants ſlaughtered, or interred alive, in the courſe of a year. And thoſe whoſe conſtant reſidence is upon the water, and whoſe poverty or ſuperſtition, or total inſenſibility, or whatever the cauſe may be, that leads them to the perpetration of an act againſt which nature revolts, ſometimes expoſe their infants, by throwing them into the canal, or river, with a gourd tied round their

necks, to keep the head above water, and preſerve them alive until ſome humane perſon may be induced to pick them up.

In connection with this ſubject, the following anecdote, which according to Mr. B., ſtands on good authority, deſerves general notice:

"A reſpectable French miſſionary, now in London, who was many years in Fo-kien, told me, that he once happened to call on one of his converts juſt at the moment his wife was brought to bed. The devoted infant was delivered to the father, in order to be plunged into a jar of water, that was prepared for the purpoſe.—The miſſionary expoſtulated with the man on the heinouſneſs of an act that was a crime againſt God and nature. The man perſiſted, that, having already more than he could ſupport, it would be a greater crime to preſerve a life condemned to want and miſery, than to take it away without pain. The miſſionary, finding that no argument of his was likely to divert him from his purpoſe, obſerved that, 'as a Chriſtian, he could not refuſe him the ſatisfaction of ſaving the infant's ſoul by baptiſm.' During the ceremony, as the father held the infant in his arms, he happened to fix his eyes on its face, when the miſſionary thought he perceived the feelings of nature begin to work; and he protracted the ceremony, to give time for the latent ſpark of parental affection to kindle into flame. When the ceremony was ended, 'Now,' ſays the miſſionary, 'I have done my duty in ſaving a ſoul from periſhing.' 'And I,' rejoined the man, 'will do mine, by ſaving its life;' and hurried away, with the infant, to depoſit it in the boſom of its mother."

(To be concluded in the next Number.)

ART. CXLII. *A Sermon preached at the Anniverſary of the Royal Humane Society, in St. George's Church, Hanover-ſquare, on Sunday, April 15th*, 1804. *By the Right Rev. Thomas Burgeſs, D.D. Biſhop of St. David's. To which is added, an Appendix of Miſcellaneous Obſervations on Reſuſcitation: By the Society.* 8vo. pp. 44; price 1s.

THIS diſcourſe is, with great propriety, dedicated to the King, under whoſe auſpices the Humane Society was formed, and has flouriſhed for a period of thirty years. In ſome of the philoſophical parts of the Biſhop's Sermon, we ſee a ſtriking ſimilarity to particular portions of Dr. Payley's admirable Treatiſe on Natural Theology: in the whole there are evident and ſtrong traces of a pious and reflecting mind. In comparing man with animals, his Lordſhip obſerves:

"Man is diſtinguiſhed from other animals chiefly by the faculty of reaſon. If the phyſical frame of man correſponds with this intellectual diſtinction, and is ſuited to the exertion of ſuch a faculty, we may conclude, that the external difference was the effect of deſign.

"A great

"A great external diſtinction between man and brute exiſts in the countenance, and, by its expreſſion of ſentiment and character, ſtrongly marks the difference between the internal faculties of the two ſpecies.

"To the phyſical conformation of man in the organs of the voice and the hands, under the direction of his rational faculties, we owe the great triumph of reaſon in the civilization of mankind. The power of reaſon is ſeen in the perception and communication of knowledge. To both theſe purpoſes the organs of the voice (that is, of articulate ſound, which belongs only to man) are peculiarly adapted. But knowledge and ſcience would have made little progreſs, if the acquiſitions of one age could not have been preſerved and enlarged by the experience of the next. A great point was therefore gained for the advancement and diffuſion of intellectual knowledge, by the invention of letters, that is, of permanent figures to denote and fix the fleeting ſounds of the voice. To execute this invaluable invention, the hands lent their moſt uſeful aid. Theſe figures could not have been made without inſtruments; nor inſtruments, without the flexible form and peculiar aptitude for mechanical action, poſſeſſed by the human hand. The reaſon of man would therefore have been, comparatively, a very paſſive faculty without the hands to execute its ſuggeſtions."

Such ſentiments and ſuch diſcourſes cannot fail of being generally uſeful; and it is a fortunate circumſtance when ſermons preached for charitable purpoſes fall to the lot of perſons capable, as his Lordſhip is, of promoting at the ſame time the intereſts of a particular inſtitution, and thoſe of rational religion.

ART. CXLIII. *Cupid turned Volunteer. In a Series of Prints, deſigned by* *****; *and engraved by W. N. Gardiner, B. A.; with Poetical Illuſtrations, by Thomas Park, F. S. A.* 4to. price 1l. 1s. London. 1804.

THESE prints, which are very neatly executed, are ſaid to have been deſigned by a lady of very high rank. The object is highly creditable to her genius and her feelings. In a criſis like the preſent, we rejoice in every exertion that is made to animate the hearts of our countrymen in defence of their rights as a free and independent people; and we were not a little gratified to ſee, in the work before us, the aid of the fine arts called in for the ſame laudable purpoſe.

That our readers may judge in what manner Mr. Park has illuſtrated the drawings, we ſhall tranſcribe the lines which accompany the firſt:—the ſubject,

CUPID SUPPLICATES PALLAS TO LET HIM BECOME A VOLUNTEER.

"Rous'd by the threat which rouſes all
To arm in Albion's patriot cauſe,
The vaunting threat of frantic Gaul,
That ſhe will pare the Lion's paws,

And with her locuſt band deſpoil
Britain,—the Heav'n-protected iſle!
Thus rous'd, e'en Love, the archer-boy,
Who wings Idalian-temper'd darts
Which, while they wound, give wounds of joy,
And only pierce to rivet hearts;
Love drops the bandage from his brow,
That he may face this threatful foe:
He ſpurns at every boyiſh fear,
And the ſage goddeſs of the Gorgon ſhield
Implores, to let him try to wield
The weapons of a Britiſh Volunteer."

BOOKS

PUBLISHED IN THE MONTHS OF JUNE AND JULY 1804;

With brief Notices of thoſe that are not reſerved for more ample Examination.

Firſt Principles of Chriſtian Knowledge; conſiſting of; 1. An explanation of the more difficult Terms and Doctrines of the Church Catechiſm, and office of Confirmation. II. The Three Church Creeds, exemplified and proved from the Scriptures. To which is prefixed an Introduction on the Duty of conforming to the Eſtabliſhed Church, as good ſubjects and good Chriſtians. By the Right Reverend Thomas Burgeſs, D.D. Biſhop of St. Davids. 12mo. pp. 124. price 1s. 6d.

Full as the title of this little work is, it does not announce the whole of its contents; his Lordſhip has ſubjoined to the dedication, an "Outline of a Courſe of Religious Education for the Poor," which he recommends to the Clergy of the Dioceſe, as an eaſy and practical method. It comprehends all ages from three years to fifteen; we ſuſpect the learned Prelate has not been accuſtomed to the duties attaching to education, becauſe he expects that children of three years of age, ſhould be able to learn, and of courſe to underſtand the Apoſtle's creed, ſelections from the ſcriptures, &c. &c. This is ſurely too much for ordinary capacities; and for theſe, general rules ſhould be laid down.

An Appendix is added, containing extracts from the canons, acts of parliament, &c. relative to the government, diſcipline, and worſhip of the Church of England. From theſe we learn for how many, and for what offences a man is liable to the ſentence of excommunication: and by the law of the land, an excommunicated perſon cannot ſerve upon juries;—cannot be a witneſs in any court; and cannot bring an action to recover lands or money due to him; and if the biſhop purſue the offender, he is liable to impriſonment in the county gaol, till he is reconciled to the church.

Reflections upon the Chapters of the New Teſtament; ſelected from the Writings of approved Divines of the Church of

of England: intended for the Uſe of the Poor, and ſuch Perſons as may not have the Means of conſulting larger Works of this nature. 12mo. pp. 466. pr. 4*s.* 6*d.*

The intention of this work is excellent, and its utility cannot be doubted. To guard againſt an improper uſe of it, the compiler hopes, that thoſe who may poſſeſs the reflections, "will not content themſelves with reading them alone, but will *firſt* read the chapter in the New Teſtament, and after that, the reflections on the ſame chapter." Among the authors to whom the compiler is indebted, is the name of Dr. Doddridge, who was an eminent divine among the Diſſenters, and well known for his Family Expoſitor, in which Practical Reflections are ſubjoined to each chapter and ſubject. In illuſtrating St. Mathew's goſpel, great uſe is made of the excellent Lectures of the Biſhop of London. A ſhort extract from this volume will afford our readers a better inſight into its nature than any deſcription: we ſelect what relates to a part of the 13th chapter of St. Luke's goſpel.

"In this chapter we have an account of our Lord's healing a poor afflicted creature, that went double for eighteen years together. This poor woman's zeal and willingneſs to attend on public worſhip, brought her out, though ſhe could not ſtand upright; and had probably in that reſpect a better excuſe for ſtaying at home, than many could make who now often abſent themſelves from the much nobler ſervices of the Chriſtian ſanctuary. She met with Chriſt in the ſynagogue, and returned with a cure; and O! how many, by ſuch pious zeal, and attendance on the worſhip of God, though they have not been looſed from their infirmities, have at leaſt been greatly ſtrengthened to bear them. Chriſt alſo teaches us, that the practice of charity and good works is one of the moſt neceſſary things in religion; that theſe duties are always in ſeaſon; and that we ſhould let ſlip no occaſion of diſcharging them, though there ſhould be people of ſo evil a diſpoſition as to be offended at them.

"We ought to meditate with care upon the anſwer which our Lord returned to thoſe who aſked him whether there would be but few people ſaved. His words teach us that, inſtead of putting vain and curious queſtions about any thing which God has reſerved the knowledge of to himſelf, and particularly about the ſalvation of others, our principal care ought to be to attain it ourſelves; and that we ought to take continual pains for it. We have ſeen that our Lord feared neither the craft nor cruelty of Herod, becauſe he knew that he was not to die in Galilee, but in Jeruſalem. This ſhews that wicked men cannot always execute their own deſigns, much leſs hinder what God has propoſed, and that we need fear nothing when we walk in our calling. Laſtly, the tenderneſs wherewith our Lord laments the ingratitude and deſtruction of Jeruſalem, by ſaying, that he would have ſcreened the Jews from the judgments of God, but they would not, ſhews very plainly that God has no other views nor deſigns with regard to men, but thoſe of love and mercy; and that no evils befel the Jews but what they brought

brought upon themselves by despising his goodness, and by slighting and rejecting the offers of his grace.

"Our Saviour sets forth his kindness and compassion to the Jews in general, and also to Jerusalem, by an affecting comparison, namely, that of a hen gathering her chickens under her wings. As a hen doth tenderly cherish and carefully hide and cover her young from the eye of the destroyer, so would Christ have sheltered this people from those who at length were his destroyers. Again, as a hen continueth her call to her young ones from morning to night, and holds out her wings for shelter to them, so did Christ wait for this people's repentance and conversion! for it was more than forty years after they had killed his prophets and murdered himself, before they met with a final overthrow."

A brief Illustration of the Morning Service of the Church of England and Ireland; shewing not only the use and design of its various parts, and the great propriety with which they are arranged, but likewise the necessity of offering up our devotions with the worship of the heart, no less than with the service of the lips. By the Rev. John Clarke, Minor Canon of the Cathedral Church of Durham. 12mo. pp. 204. pr. 3s.

THE liturgy of the church of England has been so long and so justly celebrated for its excellence and simplicity, that, by many, the tract now before us will be thought of much less importance than it is considered by the pious author. Mr. Clarke's leading views are, undoubtedly, to enforce the doctrines of the church, and to recommend to his readers practical religion. That he may speak for himself, we shall give his illustration of the *sentences used after the Lord's Prayer*:

"The Lord's prayer ended, we next proceed to the alternate repetition of several short sentences or versicles, consisting, mostly, of quotations from the Psalms; and which may be considered as a summary of the collects and prayers that follow. These pious ejaculations the minister is ordered to pronounce standing; and the people to answer kneeling; to shew the humility of the latter, and the authority of the former, as 'the ambassador of Christ,' and the 'steward of the mysteries of God.'

"The two first of these sentences, 'O Lord, shew thy mercy upon us; and grant us thy salvation,' answer to the first collect; which always contains a petition for some mercy or benefit, either of a spiritual or temporal nature; and is generally founded on the epistle and gospel.—The two next, 'O Lord, save the King; and mercifully hear us when we call upon thee,' correspond with the prayers for the King's Majesty, and for the Royal Family. The four following sentences, 'Endue thy ministers with righteousness; and make thy chosen people joyful: O Lord, save thy people; and bless thine inheritance,' answer to the prayer for the Clergy and People. The two succeeding ones, 'Give peace in our time, O Lord; because there is none other that fighteth for us, but only thou, O God,' have a relation to the collect for peace. And the two last, 'O God, make clean our hearts within us; and take not thy Holy Spirit from us,' answer to the collect for Grace.

"It is evident, therefore, that these sentences, or petitions, afford a suitable introduction to the several collects and prayers that follow, and are intended to fit our minds for a devout and profitable use of the same."

Methodism Inspected. Part I. With an Appendix on the Evidences of a State of Salvation. By William Hales, D.D. Rector of Killesandra. pp. 94; pr. 2*s.* Dublin. 1803.

IT appears that, of late years, the followers of Wesley, or Arminian Methodists, have adopted a new mode of itinerant preaching in Ireland. Their missionaries frequent markets and fairs, and harangue, on horseback, in the most crouded places of public resort. Whence they are vulgarly denominated *cavalry* preachers. In the Summer of 1802 two of this description, Messrs. Charles Graham and Gideon Ousely, visited that part of Ulster in which Dr. Hales resides, and, by the unusual mode of their preaching, and not less by the singularity of their appearance, drew public attention in no ordinary degree, wearing black coifs or skull-caps, like the Puritans formerly. The object of these missionaries is stated to be the conversion of the Irish Romanists. Had their influence reached no farther, had they not drawn many from the Protestant church, Dr. Hales would, probably, have paid little regard to their exertions. —When, however, he felt the inroads which these unauthorized preachers were making among his own parishioners, exercising all the clerical functions, he thought himself bound to expose and censure the extravagancies of the Methodists. He has attacked them with their own weapons: by references to the writings of their founder, Wesley, he has fortified his own arguments, and exposed, to just contempt, the pretended conversions of many, who, for a time, were regarded as the Saints of the earth, but whose subsequent lives demonstrated the futility of their pretensions to a separate and holy calling. We sincerely recommend Dr. Hales's pamphlet to the careful perusal of all those who may be in danger of falling a prey to the deceitful lights of enthusiasm.

A Sermon, delivered previous to the Presentation of Colours on Thursday, the 22d of March, 1804, to the Corps of Waltham Abbey Volunteers, in the Parish Church of Waltham Holy Cross, in the County of Essex. By John Mullens, A.M. 4to. pp. 19; pr. 1*s.* 6*d.*

THE text is taken from 2 Pet. i. 17, and the discourse, if not very striking, is animated and appropriate to the occasion.

The Opportunity; or, Reasons for an immediate Alliance with St. Domingo. By the author of "The Crisis of the Sugar Colonies." 8vo. pp. 156. pr. 3*s.* 6*d.*

AS introductory to this work, the author refers to opinions maintained in "The Crisis," which was published prior to the commencement of our journal. He shews that those opinions which then were thought singular, have been verified by experience, and on that account he conceives he has a strong claim to a second audience on the same interesting subject. The proposition which he lays

lays down in the work before us, and which he juſtifies by ſtrong and very powerful arguments, is, that

We ought to acknowledge, without delay, the liberty of the Negroes of St. Domingo; and to enter into federal engagements with them, as a ſovereign and independent people; and not only to grant, but, if neceſſary, to volunteer a guarantee of their independency againſt the Republic of France.

It is not our intention to follow the author in the proofs of this poſition; in his own opinion there was not, when he wrote, a moment to be loſt in executing the plan recommended; before, therefore, this notice can appear before the public, "The Opportunity" muſt either have been embraced, or will, probably, have paſſed for ever beyond our reach. In either caſe, the "Reaſons" here detailed will, we doubt not, be regarded by the politician, and thoſe particularly intereſted in the Weſt-India colonies, with attention, as exhibiting, in the author, ſtrong powers of mind, and an ardent deſire of beneſiting his country.

An Anſwer to Mr. Pitt's Attack upon Earl St. Vincent and the Admiralty, in his Motion for an Inquiry into the State of the Naval Defence of the Country. 8vo. pp. 58; pr. 1s. 6d.

IF there be any perſons, who, relying on the commanding eloquence of Mr. Pitt, feel diſpoſed to cenſure the Earl of St. Vincent for want of exertion in the high office which he lately filled, we recommend to ſuch the peruſal of this pamphlet, which appears to have been written by authority, and cannot fail of making the impreſſion intended by the author.

A Dive into Buonaparte's Councils, on his projected Invaſion of Old England. By Thomas Martyn, author of a work on Shells; &c. &c. Large 8vo. pp. 56; price 2s. 6d. 1804.

THE outlines of this work were ſketched more than a year ago; when they were preſented to the Duke of York and the then Chancellor of the Exchequer. By them, we are informed, they met with a favourable reception; and they are now offered to public notice, in the perſuaſion that they are calculated to afford hints, which, on ſome occaſions, may eventually prove advantageous to military and naval commanders.

Two Eſſays: one on the author's mode of executing Rough Sketches; the other, on the Principles on which they are compoſed. To theſe are added, Three Plates of Figures; by Sawrey Gilpin, Eſq. R.A. By William Gilpin, M.A. 8vo. pp. 43.

THESE Eſſays are introduced to the public by an account of a ſchool founded, and hitherto ſupported, at the author's expence. Perceiving the utility of this little inſtitution, Mr. G. was deſirous of rendering it permanent, without throwing any burthen on his own children. To raiſe a fund for this purpoſe, he brought to ſale, about two years ſince, ſeveral drawings and little picturesque MSS. on which he had been occupied for ſome time: the produce of that

ſale

sale has given him a fund of eighty-four pounds per annum. This sum not being entirely adequate to his wishes, he means to apply a second time to the public, with a few more drawings; the sale of which, with the profits arising from these essays, will, probably, enable him not only to fix the school at Boldre on a permanent foundation, but afford, also, some important assistance to a similar institution at Brokenhurst, a neighbouring parish. To so benevolent a design we heartily wish success; but, independently of this, the essays themselves may be recommended to public attention, on account of their own intrinsic merit: they are worthy of the author, by whom the world has very frequently been instructed in subjects of general importance, as well as in those connected with the fine arts.

A Tour through the British West Indies, in the Years 1802 and 1803; giving a particular Account of the Bahama Islands. By Daniel M'Kinnen, Esq. Small 8vo. pp. 272; pr. 5*s*.

THE author of this volume is modest in his pretensions; his reflections are, according to his own account, to be regarded as coming from the pen of a very cursory observer. So far he is deserving of praise: but he has a claim to a higher species of commendation. If there is but little new in the work, what was known before is told in a neat and pleasing style; and persons unacquainted with more profound works on the subject of the West Indies, of their produce, of their towns, and of the manners of the inhabitants, will find not only entertainment, but a considerable portion of instruction.

A Concise History of the English Colony in New South Wales, from the Landing of Governor Phillip, in January 1788, to May 1803: describing, also, the Dispositions, Habits, and Savage Customs of the wandering unfortunate Natives, &c. 8vo. pp. 140; pr. 2*s*. 6*d*.

THE most important, and almost the only fact in this compilation, that has any claim to novelty, is, that in March, 1803, a weekly newspaper was established in the colony, under the title of the *Sydney Gazette and New South Wales Advertiser*.

Observations, chiefly Lithological, made in a Five Weeks' Tour to the principal Lakes in Westmoreland and Cumberland. 8vo. pp. 80; pr.

THESE observations will be found very useful to those who make the tour of the Lakes; and we, who are not accustomed to travel much beyond our fire-side, have found, in the perusal, amusement and some information. Had the author allowed himself more time, and been more particular in his inquiries, his work might have been rendered more generally interesting.

Comic Sketches; or, The Comedian his own Manager. Written and selected for the Benefit of Performers in England, Ireland, Scotland, and America. Inscribed to the Performers

formers in general. By Charles Lee Lewis, Comedian. 12mo. pp. 194, pr. 4*s*.

IT muſt be the very loweſt rank of performers indeed, who can derive benefit from theſe ſketches.

Mythological Amuſement. By the author of a Grammatical Game, in Rhyme. pr. 7*s*. 6*d*.

THE object of this little work is to give young perſons ſome general knowledge of fabulous hiſtory, as introductory to the reading of the poets and ancient hiſtory. The means made uſe of for this purpoſe are pictures of the principal heathen gods and goddeſſes, paſted on a folding ſheet, and a book of explanations and illuſtrations. A teetotum is alſo required in the game. We wiſh ſucceſs to every attempt made to blend inſtruction with amuſement. In this reſpect, the little work before us meets with our cordial approbation.

Preludes to Knowledge; or, Amuſing and Inſtructive Converſations on Hiſtory, Aſtronomy, Geography, Optics, and the Diviſion of Time in different Countries. Interſperſed with Stories, moral and entertaining. By Elizabeth Somerville. 18mo. pp. 194; pr. 2*s*.

THE title of this book led us to expect more than upon reading it we found; but what it does contain is amuſing and uſeful; and the moral inſtruction which the ſeveral ſtories and facts are intended to enforce, is excellent.

The Vain Cottager; or, the Hiſtory of Lucy Franklin. To which are prefixed, a few Hints to Young Women in humble Life, reſpecting Decency and Propriety of Dreſs. pp. 84; pr. 1*s*. 6*d*. or 16*s*. per Dozen. 1804.

WE regret that a ſtory ſo well calculated to intereſt the feelings, and the moral tendency of which is unqueſtionable, could not be circulated at a much lower price. We have met with few books that deſerve to be more generally read by young women whoſe ſubſiſtence muſt depend upon their own induſtry. Perhaps the patrons and patroneſſes of Sunday ſchools could not do a more acceptable ſervice than by preſenting each female with a copy of the *Vain Cottager*, upon her going to ſervice.

Great Cry and Little Wool; or, The Squads in an Uproar; or the Progreſs of Politics; or Epiſtles, poetical and picturesque. Written by Toby Scout, Eſq. a Member of Oppoſition; and edited by Peter Pindar, Eſq. Part I. 4to. pp. 24; price 1*s*. 6*d*.

A MORE appropriate title could not have been given by the acute Peter Pindar to his friend Toby Scout's epiſtles, than "GREAT CRY AND LITTLE WOOL!"

A Supplementary Epiſtle to the Correſpondence between Mr. Bowles and Mr. Adam: addreſſed to the Man who calls himſelf a Chriſtian. 4to. pp. 21.

FROM

FROM this ſevere attack upon Mr. Bowles, we ſelect a neat apology for the early life of a late noble and generally lamented peer of the realm:

" How ſoon of public life his race began!
Long ere the downy cheek beſpoke the man!
Nor chart nor compaſs to direct his way,
In Pleaſure's path no wonder he ſhould ſtray!
Yet, tho' her ſyrens play'd each wily part,
And ſtrove to faſten on his boyiſh heart,
Soon were they ſhaken off, nor left a ſtain,
But fell, like 'dew-drops, from the lion's mane.'
Let, then, the ſanctimonious ribbald's tongue
Proclaim its worſt—that BEDFORD once was young."

The Poet's Day; or, Imagination's Ramble: a Poem, in four books, with an Eulogy on Britain, its Religion, Laws, and Liberties. By E. Warren. Small 8vo. pp. 160; pr. 4s.

The Poet's Day is divided into MORNING, or a contemplative Survey of Nature: NOON, or Reflections on Real Life: EVENING, or Meditation in Retirement: MIDNIGHT, or the Day of Judgment.

If Mr. Warren's poetry be not of the firſt rank, there are many excellent paſſages in it, and its tendency is decidedly favourable to the intereſts of religion and virtue. Some parts of the poem ſhow that our author is well acquainted (and who is not?) with Thomſon's Seaſons: we quote his appeal to Farmers, for grateful acknowledgments to the God of Harveſt:

" Ye huſbandmen, who thus Heav'n's bounty ſhare,
Return the incenſe of a grateful heart
To Him who lighted up that glorious orb,
Bade him to ſhine, and gentle rains to fall,
To crown the riſing year with harveſt joy.
Nor you alone; let grateful praiſe reſound
Reſponſive from each human tongue, who ſhares
The common bounty of indulgent Heaven.
A bounty not confined to man alone,
But, by Divine munificence, dealt out
To all creation with a liberal hand.
None ſo minute, but has his bleſſing plac'd
Within his reach; and none ſo great or proud
To dare affect an independence here.

Memoirs of the Life of the Rev. Thomas Wills, A.B.; carefully compiled from the journals in his own hand-writing, and other authentic documents, by a Friend. 8vo. pp. 311; pr. 6s.

THESE Memoirs exhibit Mr. Wills's zeal in the cauſe in which he embarked: the compilation has coſt no great labour; many inſtances of groſs careleſſneſs might be quoted, if the work were likely to have a general circulation. Neither Mr. Wills nor the compiler will be accuſed of too large a ſhare of liberality for thoſe who differ from their tenets.

Muni-

Monumenta Antiqua; or Observations on Ancient Castles; including the Progress of Architecture in Great Britain, &c. &c. By Edward King, F. R. S. With many Plates. 4to. vol. iii. pr. 3*l*. 13*s*. 6*d*.

Select Gems from the Antique (twenty-two highly finished engravings), with illustrations. 4to. pr. 1*l*. 11*s*. 6*d*.

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The History and Life of King James VI. written towards the latter Part of the Sixteenth Century.

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A Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean, in which the coast of Asia, &c. &c. have been examined and surveyed. By Capt. W. R. Broughton. 4to. pr. 1*l*. 11*s*. 6*d*.

The Scenery, Antiquities, and Biography of South Wales, from materials collected during two excursions in the year 1803. By B. H. Malkin, Esq. M. A. F. S. A. 4to; pr. 2*l*. 12*s*. 6*d*.

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A Description of the Condition, Manners, &c. of the Peasantry of Ireland. By Robert Bell, LL.B. 8vo. pr. 2*s*.

Observations on a Tour made in the Summer of 1803, to the Western Highlands of Scotland. 12mo. pr. 4*s*.

An Improved Method of curing Strictures of the Urethra, with Kali Purum. By Thomas Whately. 8vo. pr. 5*s*.

Analytical Essays towards promoting the Chemical Knowledge of Mineral Substances. By M. H. Klaproth. Translated from the German. Vol. ii. 8vo. pr. 6*s*.

A Systematic View of the Formation, Discipline, and Economy of Armies. By Robert Jackson, Esq. 4to. pr. 1*l*. 1*s*.

The Authenticity, &c. of the New Testament. By Godfrey Less. Translated from the German. By Roger Kingdon, A.M. 8vo. pr. 7*s*.